The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 26, 1896.

The Week.

SPEAKER REED made a little speech before the Duluth Board of Trade on Wednesday of last week in which he preached vigorously the new Republican doctrine of tariff for revenue only. We must increase our national revenue by from $30,000,000 to $50,000,000 a year, he affirmed, or we can "never expect to hold up our head among solvent nations." But there are two ways in which a man in embarrassed circumstances can manage to hold up his head. One is to get some trusting person to lend him more money, and go on squandering it with lavish hand. The other is to cut down expenses—to give up his carriage, sell his box at the opera, rusticate at Mamaroneck instead of Mentone, and wait for better times. But what did Speaker Reed's Congress do in its last session? It appropriated $52,000,000 more than the estimated necessary expenses of the Government submitted to it by the Secretary of the Treasury. In addition, it authorized contracts for $78,000,000 more, for which other Congresses will have to find the money. That is the way our Congress undertook to hold up its head among solvent nations. Speaker Reed closed the session with regret that he had had to say "no" so often. But a "no" from him would undoubtedly have saved in extravagant appropriations that very $50,000,000 which he now says we must have. As for retrenchment and economy, he has nothing to say about them. His soul is as much above such things as was that of the bankrupt duke whose creditors made an investigation of his affairs. They found him employing two French chefs at $5,000 each, and advised him to dismiss one. "Hang it all," exclaimed the duke, "a man must have a biscuit."

The Speaker and the country should remember that $50,000,000 is just as surely added to the resources of the Treasury by not wasting it as by raising it through new taxation. The experiment will be well worth trying this winter. The chances are that it will have to be tried anyhow. Mr. Reed appeals anew for the Dingley bill, but that makeshift is now practically disowned all round. No enthusiasm can be aroused for a bill which would not certainly increase the revenue, which is acceptable to neither party in Congress, and would be almost surely vetoed by the President. Nor is there a reasonable prospect of any other revenue measure passing in the coming short session. Some Republicans are looking about in the effort to do what Burke said was impossible—namely, "to tax and to please." The only tax they will consider is one that nobody will have to pay and everybody will be delighted with. While they are trying to find that, the crowded session will probably slip away with nothing done. This will give Speaker Reed a splendid chance to make a stand for economy. If he chooses to do so, he can hold down the appropriations to the revenue. If he succeeds in doing that, he may hold his head as high among the solvent nations as he pleases.

The *World* publishes a signed interview with Mr. Dingley, chairman of the committee on ways and means in the present Congress, and probable chairman of the same committee in the next Congress, on the subject of the Dingley bill and of tariffs in general. The interview is perhaps put out now in order to prepare the public mind for the shelving of the Dingley bill, for although its author expresses considerable confidence in it as a revenue measure, and hopes it may pass Congress this winter and become a law, yet he has no such expectation. He seems to be easily reconciled to its failure to pass, partly because there will not be time to frame a satisfactory measure this winter, partly because the bill expires by limitation within a few months, and partly because it had no scientific basis—that is, it made no distinction between different articles, but raised them all, with a few exceptions, by 15 per cent. As these views of the Dingley bill are shared by Senator Aldrich, the tariff leader of the Republicans in the other branch of Congress, it is safe to say that the Dingley bill will not pass. If it does not pass this winter, it will of course be dropped altogether. What may be done under the McKinley Administration, time alone can tell.

That the sectional issue has been eliminated from our politics is now accepted as a fact, both South and North. When the whites of Alabama recovered control of their State at the end of the reconstruction period, and made a new constitution, they changed the time of electing State officials from November to August, in order to escape the presence of federal officials at the polls. In his recent message to the Legislature, Gov. Oates urges that two elections a year every other year are too many, and advises a consolidation of the State election with that for federal officials in November. Recalling the fact that fear of federal interference was the cause of the change made in 1875, he says that the federal election laws were repealed three years ago, "and now no reasonable person apprehends their reënactment, or the passage by Congress of a 'force bill.'" A bill providing for a consolidation of elections has been introduced in the Legislature, and there is every promise of its passage. It will be remembered that the people of Florida in October by an overwhelming majority ratified a constitutional amendment changing the time of their State election to November, showing that they, too, no longer have any fear of a force bill.

The announcement comes from Boston that the Immigration Restriction League is about to renew its campaign for the passage by Congress of a law which will check the tide of incoming settlers from Europe. There are, however, abundant indications that such a movement will secure far less popular support since the recent election than formerly. Fear of "the ignorant foreign vote" was the chief element in making most people think that something ought to be done to save our institutions from the ruin threatened by this element in the electorate. The revelations made by the returns of the voting in the central States of the Union have entirely disposed of this argument. It has been clearly demonstrated that the success of the sound-money cause in this pivotal region was due to its support by an overwhelming majority of the voters of foreign birth and parentage. The Omaha (Neb.) *Bee* makes this frank admission:

> "But for the support which those citizens gave to the sound-money cause, it would probably have been defeated. Eliminate the foreign-born vote given to the Republican Presidential ticket in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Iowa, and it will be found, that most, if not all, of those States would have declared for free silver. Nearly all of the sound-money Congressmen elected in those States owe their election to the foreign-born voters. In the Northern States the vast majority of these citizens were on the side of national honor and a sound currency."

The Republicans in Congress cannot fail to be affected by these developments. The Republican press in the West is already declaring its opposition to anything in the way of rigorous legislation against further immigration. Referring to the intimations that the new Administration and Congress will be found favorable to more restrictive legislation, and that strong pressure will be brought to bear in behalf of such action, the *Bee* says that "the Republican party cannot afford to forget how greatly the country is indebted to its foreign-born citizens for the result of the late general election," and that it "is bound to give respectful heed to the sentiment of this element," which it believes to be nearly unanimous against any further radical restrictions upon immigration. The recent report as to the number of immigrants during the fiscal year ending with last June shows that the only element about which any apprehension need be entertained is that which comes

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from Italy, Austria-Hungary, Russia, and Poland. These countries are now sending a larger proportion of immigrants than ever before, and they represent the lowest class of the population, 40 per cent. of those over fourteen years old being unable to read and write their own language, against less than 4 per cent. for the United Kingdom, France, Germany, and the Scandinavian countries combined. New Orleans is attracting Italians, and in one day recently 1,200 Sicilians of the most ignorant and degraded type were landed at that port. Some restriction upon such immigration would be desirable, and the easiest test which would bar it out without turning back English, Scandinavians, and Germans would be the prohibition of the landing of persons above fourteen years of age who cannot both read and write their own language. Congress may be induced to go as far as this, but anything in the way of wholesale restriction upon immigration is plainly not to be expected.

Two subjects are treated in the annual report of the Secretary of Agriculture, just published, which are of decided current interest. Most people will remember the contests which raged last summer over the question of farm mortgages. On the free-coinage stump, the Western farmer was represented as absolutely crushed under his burden of indebtedness. We took occasion, in the course of the campaign, to explode this fiction of a bankrupt farming community; the Secretary of Agriculture adds the weight of his official information to what was then set forth. Briefly, the Secretary shows that only 282 farms out of every thousand in the United States are under any mortgage whatever. While, moreover, 72 per cent. of the American farmers own their farms and farm property without encumbrance, three-fourths of the farm indebtedness actually existing, according to the Secretary, was created, not to meet any deficit in income, but to purchase new farms or to improve farm property already owned. This is, in fact, what every one at all familiar with American farming knew in a general way already. The burden of debt is not at all felt by the farmers East or West who have developed their property in conservative and prudent fashion. There have been other farmers, however, who undertook the business differently; who, when they had secured a good return from 100 acres, borrowed at once sufficient money to purchase 1,000 acres more.

Three or four years ago no spectacle was more familiar in Kansas and Nebraska than this kind of operation, which of course involved the largest imaginable risk. The first bad harvest brought down such enterprises to the verge of wreck—precisely as the first bad trade season would overwhelm an incapable merchant making a similar experiment. The fact that two or more Eastern mortgage companies, from whom these unsuccessful farmers raised their money, have themselves been brought into bankruptcy as a result of trans-Missouri investments of the kind, is proof enough, one would suppose, that the farmers in question were not ruined through the oppression of their Eastern creditors. The Secretary's second point of special interest deals with this very question of interest on farm mortgages. He shows by official figures that, in a large percentage of Western farm States—including Iowa and Kansas—the rate of interest on farm mortgages is below the mortgage rate on other realty. In Kansas, on the average, the farmer gets his money at ¼ to ½ of 1 per cent. per annum less than the rate allowed to the borrower on other real estate. That the farmer, even in the West, has suffered no loss from his comparatively high rates of mortgage interest, the report proves by the fact that actual increase in farm-land values, between the census years 1880 and 1890, was more than enough to offset the entire interest charge for the decade. We may add to this the fact, based upon personal examination of the price records of Iowa farms in recent transfers, that the gain in actual selling value of the farms, when they were wisely chosen, has continued to increase since 1890.

The most expressive way of describing John R. Rogers, who has just been elected Governor of Washington by the Populists, is to say that he lived in Kansas for a dozen years before going to the Pacific Coast, and was universally recognized as one of the greatest cranks ever bred in that State. The platform on which Rogers ran is found in 'The Irrepressible Conflict,' a book which embodies his ideas of finance, government, and society. The author declares that "at the present time the people of the United States confront a world-wide and world-long evil, of far greater magnitude than chattel slavery was—the private monopoly of money"; that "the bar, the bench, and pulpit have become, with some notable and soul-rejoicing exceptions, mere minions registering King Mammon's decrees"; that "good Christian gentlemen—as the world goes—are reaping enormous gains by creating in this fair land an earthly hell"; that "gold is of no real value to humanity, and is only used as a means of extortion, being dependent upon ignorance and prejudice for its power"; and that "the average banker has ruined more homes and blasted more lives, a hundred to one, than the traffic in alcohol." One would say that the writer of such stuff must be either a fanatic or a fool. But Rogers himself says that he is neither. Since his election he virtually admits that he wrote this sort of thing purely in a Pickwickian sense—"I did it to arouse the people"; in other words, that he is an unscrupulous demagogue, ready to adopt any means to obtain office.

The *Yale Review* suggestively sums up what may be called the evolution of the campaign literature circulated in such enormous masses during the last five months. At first the advantage was largely with the silverites. Being old hands at the business, they had long been making use of quotations from the Bible and sentimental pictures and cartoons, and, when they captured the Democratic party, they had ready a vast amount of ammunition of this sort. It broke readily through the first rather feeble defence of the Republicans. Of what use was it to protest that you were friendly to silver when there was an authentic cut of you in the act of pursuing and assassinating that helpless metal? What good did it do to show by accurate tables that silver had largely increased in use since 1873, when you were sure to be confronted with a picture of a one-eyed or one-legged man, and asked to explain wherein bimetallism differed from having two eyes and two legs? But it was not long before the sentimental argument was turned against the emotional silverites. Moving cartoons of Chinese and Mexican and Japanese silver-users were got up, and the poser put to the free-silver campaigners if we were all to become even as those Dagoes and heathen. Finally, the Republicans got their second wind and took the aggressive. They demanded answers to the specific question how free silver would affect specific classes. They showed what would be its sure effect on wages, on savings, on industry and commerce and farming. This put the Democrats on the defensive, and then it was all up with them. Their whole campaign, for the last two months of it, was one of dodging and trying in vain to change the issue.

There seems to be no doubt that the spoilsmen of the Platt machine are planning an attack upon the civil-service laws of the State for the purpose of getting control of the offices. Their plan, as openly revealed, is to pass a bill through the Legislature which will give each department of the State service control of the examinations for vacancies in its own force. That is to say, Mr. Aldridge of the Public Works Department would have power to appoint the examining board for all his employees, Mr. Lyman of the State Excise Bureau similar power in his department, and so on throughout the State. In this city the Fire, Public Works, Dock, and other departments would each have the same power. This was the desire of Messrs. Ford and La Grange of the Fire Board last winter, when they were trying to get control of all the patronage of that department. It has been the desire of all opponents of the civil-service laws everywhere since they went into operation, for it means merely "pass examinations" for the men selected by the political machines. The people of the State should

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not be deceived for a moment about the character of this raid. It is a deliberate attempt to get around the new Constitution by pretending to enforce its requirements while at the same time it really nullifies them. There is only one way in which the raid can be defeated, and that is by arousing public sentiment against it. The Civil-Service Association has declared its purpose of opposing the measure by all means in its power, and should have the support of all friends of honest and decent government.

The Canadian Ministry are finding it as hard as the framers of our Wilson bill to reform the tariff without crippling the revenues of the Government. With customs and the excise almost the only sources of revenue for the general Government in Canada, the possibility of actual or even approximate free trade is seen at once to be very small. The case in a nutshell is as follows: Revenue to the amount of $20,000,000 must be had from customs duties. These may be levied on a total value of imports amounting to about $125,000,000. But, under the present tariff, something like one-half these imported goods comes in free. The problem is, therefore, to raise $20,000,000 revenue on $70,000,000 of imports. There you get at once a *prima facie* ad-valorem duty of nearly 30 per cent., and no way of twisting the figures can make it much less on any considerable items. It is clear, then, that Mr. Laurier's promised revision of the Canadian tariff in the interest of freer trade must, in the nature of the case, be a very meagre and tentative affair. But he was clear-sighted enough and frank enough to perceive and declare this to be the fact before his triumph at the polls last June.

The fact is, that, neither in Canada nor in the United States nor in the Australasian colonies, can a general tariff for revenue fail to be sufficiently protective. A few articles may be singled out, as in the British tariff, simply and solely for customs revenue, and the great body of imports left untaxed. But if you tax all along the line and count upon your main income from duties on imports, you cannot avoid giving incidental protection to domestic manufactures. The only resort is to some other form of taxation. Without the income tax and death duties, England would be obliged to have what would be in effect a protective tariff. Historically, the income tax preceded free trade in England. Sir Robert Peel had an income tax of 7d. in the pound in operation and yielding a revenue of from $25,000,000 to $30,000,000 a year for four years before he repealed the corn laws in 1846. But a country long accustomed to the ease and secrecy, even with unjust incidence, of indirect tariff taxation, will not take kindly to an income tax, or any other form of direct taxation. It would undoubtedly be highly unpopular in Canada, and Mr. Laurier is said to have no intention whatever of experimenting with it.

Spain congratulates herself, and with good reason, on the success of her popular loan to prosecute the Cuban war. With a corresponding success in the field, many people would be inclined to think that the trouble was all over. But this would be far from being the case. The misery of the Cuban situation, looked at from the most hopeful Spanish point of view, is that pacification and orderly government of the island seem now more impossible than ever. If this rebellion should be stamped out, another one would break out in the mountains before the next rainy season is over. There is absolutely no promise of governmental or commercial stability in the island for long years to come, no matter how victorious the Spanish arms may be. Moreover, it is one thing to get a loan and another to be able to meet swelling interest charges. It is the opinion of the best European judges that Spain is now staggering under every ounce of financial burden that she can possibly carry. With Cuban industries ruined and Cuban revenues cut off, and Spain compelled to make good her guarantee of Cuban bonds, the prospect is gloomy enough to appall the stoutest Spanish heart. Success in the field means but new perils in the council of ministers. The spirit of the Spanish Government and the Spanish people through all these trials has been lofty and worthy of their best traditions. European capitalists no doubt admire it as much as everybody else, but they have said, as they have refused to lend more money to Spain, "It is magnificent, but it is not business."

The killing of an artisan for rubbing against an officer's chair in Carlsruhe has caused more excitement in Germany than any other incident of the kind has ever done, and it is not likely to be allayed by the proposed reform in military procedure. The reform consists mainly in the publicity of the proceedings. It does not affect the composition of the tribunal, or the nature of the evidence, or the sentences. The code of honor by which officers of the army live in relation to civilians, will remain unchanged, and the Emperor openly urges its maintenance in full vigor, with the qualification that he advises officers not to appear in public when excited with wine. This code makes each officer the judge in his own cause. It is for him to decide when he is insulted, when his honor is impugned, and what the penalty of the offence should be—whether death or simple apology. If, for instance, you brush past or jostle him on the sidewalk, it is for him to say whether you must die or may be let off on begging his pardon. If it should get abroad that he had been jostled and had not threatened you with death, it would ruin him. He would have to leave his regiment.

The military men in Germany maintain that this cultivated ferocity of disposition, which goes by the name of "honor," is necessary to keep up the martial spirit of the army. The theory from the earliest period of the modern world has been that a man-at-arms must be touchier than other people, and must now and then take the law into his own hands, in order to keep up his stomach for fighting in the field. Lecky discusses this in his 'History of Rationalism.' The first blow ever struck at the theory was in England about fifty years ago, when duelling even in the army was abolished. It was then found that the theory had its chief support in the duel, and that when officers were compelled to treat "insults" as civilians treat them, their "honor" ceased to be more sensitive than that of other people, and that their courage or military spirit was in no way affected thereby. In fact, the theory was found to be quite hollow, like the football theory with us, which maintains that unless our young men "buck and tackle" each other, they will shrink from facing the foe in the field in time of war. Since military honor was abolished in England, English soldiers have fought with the old courage on a score of fields. The whole subject is a ludicrous comment on the notion that war elevates character. Tens of thousands of young men, in Germany and in France, have to-day to be kept in a state of readiness to commit murder for trifles, in order to prepare them for the exercise of their profession. And yet they all go to church regularly, have prayer at the guard-houses, and the German court has a "chaplain."

In the debate in the Reichstag last week, Herr Bebel, the spokesman of the Socialists, boldly said that the Emperor's talk about insult to the uniform was that of an insane person. Herr Bebel meant the words in their literal sense, and thousands of Germans believe him to be telling the exact truth. Some day, it is to be hoped, the most intelligent nation in the world will refuse longer to be made the victim of the mad pranks of a monarch who ought to be under medical surveillance. Certainly it must be profoundly humiliating to enlightened Germans to have to sit still under such sentiments as the Minister of War gave utterance to in the same debate under the Emperor's direction. He practically defended the killing of civilians on sight by army officers, on the ground that any remark disrespectful to the Emperor was deserving of death. As any impoliteness to an officer is also, constructively, an insult to the Emperor, the invitation to commit murder with impunity seems to be as freely extended in Berlin as in Constantinople.

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THE INDIANAPOLIS MOVEMENT.

THE most hopeful movement towards reforming the currency and reaping the fruits of the victory for sound money is the one initiated on Wednesday week by the Indianapolis Board of Trade, which adopted the following preamble and resolution:

"Whereas, The result of the recent national election signifies clearly a determination on the part of the people to have a sound-money system of currency, and it is manifest that reforms in the existing systems are necessary;

"Resolved, That the boards of trade of Chicago, St. Louis, Cincinnati, Louisville, Cleveland, Columbus, Toledo, Kansas City, Detroit, Milwaukee, St. Paul, Des Moines, Minneapolis, Peoria, Grand Rapids, and Omaha be invited to send four delegates to a preliminary conference to be held in Indianapolis on December 1, 1896, for the purpose of considering the advisability of calling a larger conference, composed of delegates from the boards of trade and commercial organizations of the cities of the United States, to consider the propriety of creating a non-partisan commission to which shall be assigned the duty of formulating a plan for the reform of the currency, to be reported to a subsequent meeting of the conference."

Not only is the movement itself in the right direction, but the place where it takes its start is the best possible. Indianapolis is the city where Palmer and Buckner were nominated. It is identified by that fact with the cause of sound money. It is in the centre of the central West, which routed the Bryanites so magnificently in the recent election. It is the capital of a State on which a great many anxious thoughts were centred during the campaign, and it was from Indianapolis mainly that the influences went forth that finally rolled up 22,000 majority for McKinley and Hobart. It has ably conducted newspapers heartily supporting the movement. No other place could more appropriately take the necessary step.

What it is that we call a necessary step we may again briefly explain. During the past four years we have had a money panic of great severity, followed by a disastrous collapse of trade and industry lasting till the present time. During this time the Government has bought nearly $300,000,000 of gold, and issued interest-bearing bonds therefor. This has been rendered necessary by the existence of its outstanding demand-notes and the presentation of them for redemption. The issue of bonds was absolutely indispensable, since in no other way could the gold standard have been preserved and the solvency of the Government maintained. Yet the very fact of issuing them put a weapon in the hands of demagogues which might have destroyed the republic. They said that the banks were drawing out the gold in order to force the Government to issue the bonds for them to speculate with, and that the banks repeated this operation as often as they pleased. They found some millions of voters who either believed this falsehood or who voted as though they believed it, and these millions, although a minority of the whole people, are still here ready to vote the same way again. Shall the material out of which such a conflagration is likely to arise be left for any incendiary to touch with a match?

It is very easy to say that we have passed that danger, that we shall now have better times, and that everybody will forget the panic of 1893 and the long trail of stagnation and business failures that followed it. How do you know that? There never was a period in our history when such conditions seemed less likely to occur than the year 1890. What happened in that year may easily happen again. Three things took place which conspired to produce the disaster of 1893. There was an alliance between the silver Republicans and the Southern Senators which led to the passage of the Sherman Silver act. There was a McKinley tariff law which set out to reduce the revenue, and so far succeeded that the Government's income very soon fell below its expenditures. There was a financial crisis in Europe, known as the Baring panic, which led to the selling of a great many American securities by foreign investors. Exactly how much was contributed by each of these factors will never be known, because nobody will ever be able to disentangle all the elements of the scare. It is sufficient to point out that the gold reserve began to run down, that it fell rapidly and enormously in 1891 and 1892, so that, in the spring of 1893, measures of replenishing became necessary. If the Government had had no demand-notes outstanding, it would have been under no necessity of replenishing its gold reserve. Although it might have needed some money to meet the deficiency of current receipts, its borrowings would have been limited to that deficiency. Moreover, as the cause of the borrowing would have been perfectly understood, it would have led to no political discontent, but would probably have resulted in a wholesome popular demand for reduced expenditures. As the cause was not understood, the door was left open to the wildest surmises and the most dangerous heresies, and is still open.

We repeat that there is nothing, either in the nature of things or in the temper of the people, or in the wisdom of such Congresses as we have reason to look for hereafter, which can be relied on to prevent a recurrence of these or other equally baneful circumstances. It is the unexpected which most generally happens in this world, and we cannot be at all certain what kind of a Congress may be elected two years from now. There may be another panic abroad. Such events are not infrequent. We may have short crops, or a foreign embroilment of some kind—there are plenty of Jingoes ready to provide us with one. Any number of eventualities may occur which shall bring us face to face with a diminished gold reserve and the necessity of a new issue of bonds. How many such can we have—we ask the question in all seriousness—without throwing the majority of electoral votes into the Bryan column? Does anybody who voted against Bryan on the 3d of November want to take the risk of the next election after a few more bond sales shall have been made? And is there any certain method of avoiding such sales while the Government's demand-notes are outstanding?

THE CREDIT OF THE SOUTH.

Two of the best of the Southern papers, the Charleston *News and Courier* and the Columbia (S. C.) *State*, have replied to our observations on the financial situation in which the South has left itself, through its part in the election, in terms of haughty indignation. They protest against the idea of "punishing" the South, and against the idea that the South will ever "beg" or "pass around the hat." This reminds us much of certain excellent remarks in Mr. Rae's work, the 'Country Banker.' In his advice to the manager, he says:

"In the course of your management you will not always be the medium of pleasing intelligence from your directors to your clients. You have to intimate to Mr. Bareacres, perhaps, that the loan of a few thousand pounds for a year or two at 3 per cent. without security, for which that gentleman has applied to the directors, cannot be granted. The fact probably is that, apart from other fatal objections to the transaction, Mr. Bareacres is not safe for anything like the amount. But you are not obliged to tell him so. Without impugning his credit to his teeth, the refusal of the loan, even if conveyed to him in the mildest language, will be disappointment enough to a man of sanguine disposition, which I take to be the normal temperament of that variety of borrower who makes periodical applications to bankers for ridiculous advances on impossible terms. Mr. Bareacres will either accept the decision of your board with good grace, or he may resort to irritating comment, in which case it will be well to put a guard upon your temper. Among other remarks, he may suggest, perhaps, that your bank hasn't the money to spare. Nevertheless, it would be a mistake to fly into a passion or bandy words with him. Rather accept the sneer as a drollery on his part, and offer to lend him twice the money on approved security and rational terms. He will thus be discomfited on ground of his own choosing, and leave you master of the situation."

We simply pointed out to the South, in as mild terms as seemed consistent with lucidity, that its political course was calculated to destroy its own credit; and we based this conclusion, not on hope, or fear, or love, or hatred, or any other human passion, but on human experience and on principles of human nature. The first wish of an investor or lender is, not to be friendly or humane, but to be safe. He does not part with his money for the purpose of obliging somebody or because he admires somebody. He parts with it for the purpose of getting it back with interest or profit. This is what is meant by "business."

Now all men and communities of whom we have ever heard, who are civilized enough to borrow or invite investors, and who wish to do so, are careful to hold out the prospect of safety to them. They

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tell, it is true, of their natural advantages, but they tell above all of the goodness of their laws, of the purity and learning of their judges, of the high morality of the community touching the payment of debts and fulfilment of contracts. It was through these things, in fact, that all communities of whom history tells us anything, rose to wealth and renown through trade—Venice, Genoa, Holland, the Hansa towns, England. They were all most particular in proclaiming to the world that the foreigner and his money were safe among them, that whatever he put into their hands he was sure to get back undiminished and unadulterated. All these states have made a great point of having a fixed money standard of value, and letting the world know about it by telling it the exact weight and quality of their standard coin. They always made boast, too, of the purity of their courts. We all remember how, in the "Merchant of Venice," *Antonio* hopes nothing from the Duke's mercy, because

> "The Duke cannot deny the course of law;
> For the commodity that strangers have
> With us in Venice, if it be denied;
> Will much impeach the justice of the state,
> Since that the trade and profit of the city
> Consisteth of all nations."

Now, bearing all this in mind, consider what a large part of the South has done. It wants capital to develop its extraordinary natural resources and employ its labor. This capital it has to borrow, yet cannot borrow without making those who have to lend sure that the money will be repaid in exactly the same value—not simply in the same name—in which it is lent, and that in all disputes touching the lenders' rights the local courts will decide the matter on principles of justice and equity. It therefore endeavors, by means of a long, tumultuous agitation and a most exciting election, to convince the world that if its candidate for the Presidency be elected there will thereafter be no fixed standard of value at the South; that the existing one will be immediately lowered, in obedience to a strong popular demand, and will probably be revised and changed quadrennially by the popular vote controlled and influenced by strolling orators of all kinds; and that anybody who complains of this, or protests against it, is probably a minion of an indefinite influence called "the money power," and ought to be hanged or driven out of the country.

To prevent the investor's supposing that he has a legal protection against this extraordinary programme, the Bryanite States also inform him that their intention is, owing to the bad conduct of the Supreme Court about a popular tax, called the income tax, to "reorganize" the Court also, once in four years or thereabouts, by adding to the number of judges, so that its decisions on questions of constitutionality may always accord, as they ought to accord, with the views of the party having a majority at the last preceding election, and that if, for instance, this majority should decide that leather or iron money was good enough for foreign creditors, the court should so declare, through a majority of the judges created for that purpose.

The above is a true description of what the Bryanite States said to "the money power" through the last election. All we have done is to point out to the South the probable effects of this on the mind of "the money power." We are no more responsible for these effects than for any other phenomenon of human nature—for a man's fear when he is going to be hanged, for his joy when he hears he has inherited a fortune, or for his sorrow when he hears that his chief debtor has "burst up." To be angry with us about it is therefore most ludicrous. The proper way to answer us is to show that the South at the last election did not make these declarations to the world; that it has a known standard of value, and clings to it; that it attaches great importance to judicial independence; and that Bryan, its candidate, was a distinguished and well-known citizen, renowned for his sagacity and business experience and juristical attainments, and long familiar with financial problems and financial history. By showing these things to be true, it would cover us with shame.

BRYAN AND PLATT.

We think we may assert confidently that the opposition to Bryan, at least in this State, was due more largely to his attack on the Government of the United States, his proposal to change the character of the Supreme Court and deprive the President of the power to keep the public highways open in case of the treachery or inability of the local authorities, and to his attempts to excite class hatred, than to his silver heresies. It was felt that his governmental theories were, in fact, far more dangerous than his currency follies. Why were they dangerous? They were dangerous because every government owes its strength, not to the paper documents in which it is defined, but to its hold on the minds of the people who live under it. There are several countries which have paper constitutions as good as or better than ours; but they do not work, and for the simple reason that they have not secured popular comprehension, respect, and acquiescence. But Bryan's crusade, large amount of support as it received from the more ignorant and unthinking portion of the population, was prevented from being really dangerous by his frankness. In several hundred speeches in all parts of the country he set forth his plans and theories with the utmost candor. There never was, from the beginning, the slightest doubt about his aims except what came from the somewhat muddled and contradictory character of his arguments. Everybody knew, or thought he knew, what would happen if Bryan were elected. He alarmed the community as it has not been alarmed since the war of 1861. He made women, as well as men, tremble for the political constitution which had for one hundred years been their boast and glory.

We wish to point out, in all seriousness, that there is an agency at work in this State to-day far more dangerous than Bryan, because it is secret and silent. It is engaged much more effectively than Bryan in destroying the popular respect for American institutions and confidence in American government as set forth in the written constitution and laws. That agency is Thomas C. Platt, the President of an express company at No. 49 Broadway, and a legal resident of Owego, Tioga County. He took charge of the Republican party some years ago, with the apparent acquiescence of the voters; and within that period, without ever making a speech or writing an article under his own name worth serious consideration, he has been successful in so completely changing the government of the State that, if his scheme were put on paper, it would be found to bear hardly more resemblance to our State Constitution as amended in 1894 than the government of Italy. This, too, has been done so privately that probably four-fifths of those who voted against Bryan, or were frightened by Bryan, will suppose that, in saying this, we are either greatly exaggerating or giving expression to party malice. But a generation is growing up and coming on the stage which is becoming so familiar with Platt's system that all memory or thought of any other is passing out of their minds.

Suppose he were as frank and open as Bryan, and went about the State making speeches in which he set forth his plan, what would he say? Something like this:

"Fellow-Citizens: You all know that I am a plain, blunt man, who stayed only one year in college and got very little instruction while I was there. I am not an orator, or what is called a 'thinker.' I am not in any sense an authority on any subject outside of politics. Nobody believes much of what I say, except my immediate adherents, but I write articles secretly which I send to the country newspapers, praising myself and my own work, and they are extensively circulated. I believe that the best way to select a Governor for the State is to let me select him, and I would never select him without getting from him pledges beforehand to appoint certain men to office, also to be named by me, and to sign certain bills which I get up for my own purposes. I am utterly opposed to the election of any Governor on the ground of his character and eminence, who acts in any office under any advice but mine, or from the humbug called a 'sense of public duty.' I believe, in short, the gubernatorial office is best filled when there is a good man like myself behind the Governor's chair to tell him what to do. I am entirely op-

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posed to the civil-service clause in the Constitution, but I would not oppose it publicly. I recommend that it be secretly evaded, with the Governor's connivance, either by openly disregarding it in making appointments, or by selecting Commissioners who will not carry it out. My own idea is that it is not best to appoint men of good character and regular occupation to office at all. The best men to carry out the system of government which I believe in, are ignorant and unscrupulous men of bad reputation. If they have been indicted for crimes of violence, or the lighter kinds of fraud, so much the better. Such men are much more obedient to me, and therefore more useful, than those produced by Chinese examinations. In fact, I think a State civil service should generally be manned by poor characters. The Mugwump talk about 'fitness' makes me sick, as I am sure it does you.

"As regards the Legislature, I do not think any one should be elected to it without my consent or approval. Such candidates I am willing to assist with contributions from the fund which I collect from the corporations, and of which I neither keep nor render any account. I always make a return to the corporations, however, either by protecting them from blackmail legislation set on foot by myself, or by selling them such legislation as they may desire. I would not allow any legislator to appear in his own character in either branch. I do not allow legislators to debate or vote out of their own heads. I require every legislator to have an 'owner' in the person of some outsider, who can be arranged with for his services. I require all legislative measures to be submitted to me for my approval before their introduction, on pain of being defeated without debate. In fact, I do not allow discussion of measures at all, except in very extreme cases, and I think the notion that American government is 'government by discussion' a mischievous delusion. I have contrived another and more effective process for the passage of bills, called 'jamming through.' To what is called 'good city government'—that is, government of a city for the convenience and according to the wishes of the majority of the inhabitants—I am utterly opposed. I consider all talk of this kind disgusting cant. My plan of governing cities is government by commissions appointed by myself, and consisting of adventurers of poor character dependent on me for a livelihood."

Now suppose Platt were to do as Bryan did—go through the country addressing people on the stump in favor of a plan of this sort—what should we say? And yet, without speaking on the stump at all, he has introduced this very plan, and it is now in operation among us, and tens of thousands of our young men have ceased to think of any other government as possible. A more striking illustration of the way republican governments decline and fall there is not in history, and teachers of political science ought to make more use of it than they do.

A CONSERVATIVE PEOPLE.

VERMONT has always required a majority vote for the election of legislators. Every other State in the Union has adopted the plurality system. A bill to substitute this system came before the Vermont Legislature on November 17. Its advocates showed that the requirement of a majority vote for election, compelling, as it often does, prolonged and even finally fruitless balloting, frequently disfranchises the old, the infirm, and the weak, who cannot endure the weary hours consumed in balloting; and that it almost always leaves some towns in the State unrepresented in the Legislature, because no candidate can get a majority, even when the struggle has been kept up into the second day. But such arguments were of no avail, and the proposed innovation was rejected by a two-thirds vote of the House.

Massachusetts has always chosen State officers and legislators annually. Every other one of the old States (except Rhode Island) and all the newer commonwealths have adopted longer terms, and the system has stood the test of experience wherever it has been tried. The advocates of the reform, after prolonged efforts and frequent rebuffs in the Legislature, finally succeeded in having a biennial-election amendment to the Constitution submitted to the voters three weeks ago, but it was rejected at the polls by a large majority.

The question of calling conventions to frame new constitutions was submitted to the voters of New Hampshire and Minnesota on the 3d of November, and various constitutional amendments were passed upon in many other States. The proposals for conventions were defeated in the States just named, and the amendments were rejected in almost every case, whether good, bad, or indifferent—the only striking exception being the majority cast for the woman-suffrage proposition in the thinly settled State of Idaho.

In almost every one of these cases the result was due simply to the conservatism of the people. "I hold to the old practices and ideas that have been tried and not found wanting"—this remark of one speaker at Montpelier was the keynote of the opposition to plurality elections of legislators in Vermont. "Where annual elections end, there tyranny begins," said John Adams in the last century; and there were plenty of eminent citizens in Massachusetts a hundred years later to reëcho the declaration, undeterred by the spectacle of scores of commonwealths with less frequent elections which are apparently as free as the Bay State. "Let well alone," even if it is not very well—that was plainly the mood of voters almost everywhere, even when changes in the Constitution which had much of promise in them were suggested.

The disinclination to change here shown is common to all the States. Mr. F. J. Stimson of Boston has for many years studied the work of lawmakers throughout the country. In the last issue of the *Yale Review* he says that "no one who attempts a summary of the legislation of the forty-five States and three Territories of the Union for recent years can fail to be struck with the wave of conservatism passing over our many sovereign legislatures." Mr. Stimson is able to contrast recent laws with those passed in the seventies, and he declares that this wave of conservatism "is so marked as to convince the student that it is more than a temporary eddy, and betokens a permanent and rational conviction in the minds of the people and their representatives that the fundamental principles of the common law had better be left alone."

The conservative tendency thus shown as to State laws and constitutions has received a most striking illustration in the recent national election. It is not too much to say that no question has ever been presented to the voters of the United States which afforded a clearer test of the readiness of the American people to try a radical change. A long period of hard times had, as always, inclined the unthinking to look with favor upon any policy which promised relief, and the most abundant material for successful appeals to ignorance and prejudice was diligently used by cunning demagogues during the canvass. But the overwhelming majority against the proposed change of the monetary standard showed that the people are essentially conservative.

Foreign critics of our institutions have noted this characteristic of our people. Mr. Bryce, in the 'American Commonwealth,' after remarking that Americans are, in a sense, "a changeful people"—as shown, for instance, by the suddenness with which the Know-nothing party of forty years ago rose and fell—says:

> "After this it may seem a paradox to add that the Americans are a conservative people. Yet any one who observes the power of habit among them, the tenacity with which old institutions and usages, legal and theological formulas, have been clung to, will admit the fact. A love for what is old and established is in their English blood. . . . They are like a tree whose pendulous shoots quiver and rustle with the lightest breeze, while its roots enfold the rock with a grasp which storms cannot loosen."

The most significant feature of the recent election was its demonstration that the conservatism which Mr. Bryce attributes to the "English blood" of our people is not less characteristic of the foreign strains which have been infused into the electorate. Grave fears have been entertained that the spirit which had animated New Englanders of native descent, living for the most part in small agricultural communities, would not be found dominant in great cities made up of heterogeneous foreign elements, nor in

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agricultural commonwealths at the West where the majority of the voters are men who were born in other countries. This fear has been effectually dispelled when Chicago, a city where 60 per cent. of the males twenty-one years old and upwards were born abroad, gives 70,000 majority on the side of conservatism, and North Dakota, a farming State without one large city, where almost two-thirds of the men are of alien birth, gives 6,000 majority on the same side out of 40,000 votes —the equivalent of 90,000 majority in a poll as large as that of Indiana.

Doubtless we shall continue to try more or less foolish experiments in government, and suffer more or less for our folly. But the composite people which now make up the nation have certainly demonstrated that, as regards the fundamental principles, they are quite as conservative a race as the more homogeneous elements which set the new government in operation a century ago.

CABINET CHANGES IN JAPAN.

TOKYO, October 19, 1896.

WHEN the war with China was brought to a close and the treaty of peace signed, it was generally believed in Japan that Count Ito had his most brilliant record still to make. The Premier was neither by inclination nor ability a war minister. His *forte* had always been supposed to lie not in the execution of a policy requiring dash and courage, but rather in the construction of a plan slowly and carefully elaborated. When, in addition to the victory of peace, he secured the coöperation of the Jiyu-to, or Liberals, and induced their leader, Count Itagaki, to enter the Cabinet as Home Minister, he seemed to give double assurance to the public that his real genius was at last about to manifest itself. He commanded a majority of the votes in Parliament, he had the undoubted favor of the Emperor, he had derived some prestige from the conduct of a successful war, he had an indemnity to conjure with. What more, was the natural inquiry, is necessary for a man of his type of mind and character to enable him to guide the country to solid prosperity after the inevitable excitement and losses of war?

And truly at first the Ito Cabinet had a certain show of success, especially in elaborating various measures in regard to taxation, banking, and shipping, and further in securing their passage through Parliament. But this success was as brief as it was solitary. The Cabinet steadily lost the support of public opinion. Affairs in Corea went from bad to worse. Every diplomatic failure in that unfortunate country, instead of spurring the Japanese Government to a more energetic and enlightened policy, led only to fresh failure. The Tokyo press in vain clamored for reform. The final upshot of all the Japanese Government's efforts in Corea was to leave that country in almost the same state of demoralization as at the beginning. In Formosa, also, the attempts of the late Cabinet to reorganize the administration were not beneficial. The work of the army in the island has been probably free from any serious error, but the civil administration is rotten, and the Japanese workmen dispatched there by the Government have acted in a way to bring contempt on the people and policy of Japan. In the month of June the Prime Minister went to Formosa and had an opportunity of personally inspecting the situation there. It might have been expected that this visit would lead to some decisive measures of reform, but the public was again disappointed. Not a few Japanese newspapers pointed out that the conduct of affairs in Formosa, so far from being an improvement on the slipshod methods of the Chinese Government, was actually in comparison a detriment to the interests of the island.

Besides all these evidences of failure, the finances of the Government were not properly dealt with, or at least the financial policy of the Government did not inspire confidence. Rumors were circulated that the Minister of Finance was at variance with the heads of other departments in regard to the expenditures for the coming year. The estimates were forty millions (yen) in excess of the probable revenue, and the Finance Minister threatened to resign if his colleagues were determined to augment the budget for the coming year to such an extent. This state of indecision and confusion in the Cabinet was reflected in the condition of the business interests of the country. Trade and manufactures, which had been buoyant during the past year, suffered a check. As a consequence the stock exchanges showed a reaction in the prices of securities, and Government bonds fell several points. The Cabinet was everywhere discredited. It suffered from internal contentions as well as from outward attacks, and the general feeling grew that its duty was to make way for a new Government. Accordingly, Marquis Ito and, with a single exception, all his colleagues tendered their resignations on the 28th and 29th of August, leaving the difficult work of constructing a new Cabinet to a fresh combination of the Sat-cho statesmen.

So general and various were the causes of the downfall of the Ito Ministry that the political parties of the Opposition found difficulty in assigning a definite reason for it. It was in reality a general breakdown, originating in a want of decision, absence of unity, and lack of moral stamina in the Cabinet as a whole. The immediate occasion of the failure was simple. Count Ito, in allying himself with the Liberals and attaching Count Itagaki to his Cabinet, had definitely made a political enemy of those parties and party leaders to whom the Liberals were in opposition. As soon as it was seen that the Departments of Foreign Affairs and Finance were without ministers of sufficient authority to establish a satisfactory policy, a widespread demand arose that Count Okuma and Count Matsukata should respectively fill these important offices. The former is believed to be the most capable man in Japan for administering the foreign relations of the country, while the latter at present enjoys the confidence of all the industrial and commercial classes to a remarkable degree. To admit these two men into his Cabinet, however, was out of the question, as in that case Marquis Ito would have proved entirely disloyal to his late allies and their leader, Count Itagaki. As the difficulty of filling these two departments satisfactorily increased, it was finally accepted as an excuse for the resignation of nearly the entire Cabinet. The truth, however, is that this was merely a pretext. The Premier left the reins of government to other hands not on any specific point of principle, but because the entire political and financial situation of the country had become too complicated for his resources. The exit of the Cabinet, coming, as it did, at a time when one would naturally have expected a successful and energetic prosecution of various post-bellum measures, was distinctly of a character to suggest a lack of moral force and of political insight. One has only to recall the work accomplished by Germany after the war of 1870-71 to perceive the failure of the Ito Ministry in all its length and breadth.

The very condition of hopelessness and uncertainty in which the Cabinet left the affairs of state made the work of finding a suitable successor a matter of the greatest difficulty. At first Marquis Yamagata was spoken of as the probable head of the next Cabinet, with Matsukata as Minister of Finance and Okuma of Foreign Affairs. But the Marquis had but little inclination for the honor. He was suffering from an illness, and did not wish to risk his health still further in undertaking to steer the Administration at a time when failure would bring disgrace, and success would hardly bring honor. It was perfectly understood that, whoever might be the nominal head of the Government, the real men in authority would be Okuma and Matsukata; consequently Marquis Yamagata probably did not relish the hardships he would have to encounter, especially when he could hardly do anything to add to his present reputation. Whatever the hidden political undercurrents that may have affected his judgment, they finally decided him to reject emphatically the premiership.

Still another doubt, however, was whether Marquis Yamagata could secure the services of Count Okuma on any fair terms. The sympathies of the Marquis are necessarily with the military wing of the Government, and the leading spirits of the army are strongly opposed to making any concessions to the desire for the so-called party system of government. Could Marquis Yamagata decently invite into his Cabinet a statesman who had done more, during the past six years, to precipitate a wholly popular method of government than any other public man in Japan? Or if the Marquis was ready to do this for the sake of getting the services of a competent minister, would Count Okuma be justified in accepting the office without making almost impossible conditions? Would the latter not stultify himself and justify the charge of his political enemies that he stood on a platform of opposition to the Sat-cho merely as a means of climbing into office? He could not decently accept a ministry in any cabinet that was in all likelihood definitely opposed to the principle of party government, however ready he might be to accept a portfolio in a cabinet not specifically pledged to this principle.

Meanwhile, affairs of state were hopelessly drifting. Within the group of statesmen who have during the past twenty-five years controlled the action of the Government (the so-called Genkun statesmen, composed mainly of men of Sat-cho affiliations), no one could be found to construct a cabinet under the given conditions, viz., that Count Okuma should have the Department of Foreign Affairs and Count Matsukata that of Finance. These two statesmen at last saw the situation approaching which their long opposition to the Ito Government had in some degree brought about. After two weeks of experiment, it was at last seen that affairs of state had reached an *impasse* from which the two statesmen alone could extricate it. There was undoubtedly prevalent much opposition to a Cabinet presided over by Count Matsukata. The conservative elements feared him as well

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as his associate, because they felt that at any time these two men might precipitate without any reservations the system of party cabinets; and however much Count Ito did to promote the same end, yet he never publicly uttered a word in favor of the system.

It was little more than sheer necessity that induced the Conservatives to accept the fiat of the two principals. The difficulties in the way of Count Matsukata were very great. Three times he asked the Emperor to release him from the task of forming a cabinet, but he was clearly indispensable and he was urged to continue. For ten days the newspapers were filled with contradictory reports, sometimes going to the length of stating positively that he had absolutely refused to make any further effort. But every threat on his part to retire merely brought into clearer relief the impossibility of arranging the finances or of settling the pressing problems of colonial administration, and finally his opponents were forced to silence. On the 18th of September he formally accepted office, and a day later he was in a position to announce his new cabinet. He himself became Premier, and besides took charge of the Department of Finance, while Count Okuma, of course, was the Minister of Foreign Affairs. The other members of his Cabinet are for the most part Satsuma men, who will, however, have to fall in line with the demands of the two leaders or resign.

The press of the country assumes a curious attitude towards the new Administration. Nearly all the newspapers confess that it was born in weakness, that it has no sufficient backing at present in the Parliament, and that it may be short-lived. However indispensable the new Cabinet may be at this stage of affairs, yet it is believed that when Parliament opens it may have to reorganize on a more definite basis. It is almost a certainty that the question of government by party has been discussed at the meetings of the present Cabinet, and very near the surface at all events is this issue of issues. While no definite answer has, as yet, been made to this burning question, it may be fairly supposed that, when another crisis does arise, the power of the Satcho will fall and the so called clan system of government disappear for ever. It is possible that the leading spirits of the two most powerful clans may make one last struggle for survival, but even this, while hardly likely to occur, can do little more than prolong their authority for a brief period. G. D.

Correspondence.

MORE ANTI-BRYAN CITIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your enumerations of majorities given in sixteen principal cities, you have named ten cities having a less population than Pittsburgh-Allegheny, which together gave McKinley a plurality of 28,000. "Greater Pittsburgh," which is virtually Allegheny County, with a population of 700,000, gave a Republican plurality of 49,000, and yet over 40,000 registered voters failed to vote. Many of these delinquents gave as an excuse that "Pennsylvania was sure, anyhow." Probably three-fourths of them were Republicans. One district, composed wholly of market gardeners, gave Bryan but two votes out of 85. In an exclusively farming district, Bryan got but 10 votes out of 160. Our "American" labor is mostly performed by Poles, Hungarians, and Italians, many of whom are included in the registration list, but do not vote. The party which demands the highest protection for this American labor always carries Allegheny County by a large majority.

Yours truly, W. Howels.

Pittsburgh, November 17, 1896.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of November 12 you mention Denver, Omaha, and New Orleans as the only cities of over 100,000 souls which were found on the wrong side in the recent election. This unenviable distinction does not belong to Omaha, which gave McKinley 1,272 votes over Bryan.—Respectfully,

Newton M. Mann.

Omaha, November 17, 1896.

THE FOREIGN VOTE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit one of the foreign-born American citizens of the United States to thank you most sincerely for your editorial utterances in your issue of November 12? I refer to the article entitled "Redemption of our Cities." That a journal of the standing of the *Nation*, reaching, as it does, a very great proportion of cultivated and influential readers, should take this stand at this peculiar period in our national history is certainly very significant. It is also an act of justice for which every foreign-born American citizen has special reason for earnest gratefulness.

Permit me to call your attention to the enclosed publication, especially prepared by the undersigned, pending the last national campaign. It deals, as you will observe, exclusively with the Scandinavian aspect of the political field of the United States. You will notice that over 90 per cent. of the entire Scandinavian press, numbering more than one hundred journals, all their institutions of learning, or, more correctly, all their presidents and teachers, and, for all practical purposes, the entire Lutheran priesthood, were on the side of national honor and national conservatism in the body politic.

I have not had the opportunity to prepare a similar object-lesson as regards the other leading foreign divisions of our country, but I believe as good a showing would have been made for most of them. Altgeld and all he stands for are as much of an anachronism to the representative foreign-born workman in field or shop as is Tillmanism to the enlightened business judgment of the "New South." The "crackers" and their uncouth spokesman are not the real South; even less, if possible, do the Altgelds and their would-be blatherskite followers represent the hard-working, thrifty foreigner, whose main ambition, next after obtaining the boon he has travelled thousands of miles to obtain—remunerative employment—is the establishment of a home, either rural or urban. No commonwealth is in any danger whatever from its home-building class of citizens, and that such are the actual facts in the case, and that our foreigners are above all home-builders, the census will prove, and the last election has magnificently vindicated the cold figures of that report.

That the *Nation* is among the very first to discern and publicly state this is, I repeat, one of the most satisfactory and significant results of the last great campaign.

Olaf Ellison.

Chicago, November 21, 1896.

FRENCH UNIVERSITIES AND AMERICAN STUDENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Several notes and communications have recently appeared in the *Nation* relative to the Franco-American Committee and the movement in France to make the universities of that country more accessible and profitable to American students. In order to correct certain misapprehensions apparent in at least one of these publications, I deem it proper to make a statement on the subject.

In May, 1895, a private gentleman, then resident in Paris, called the attention of the Minister of Public Instruction to the comparatively small number of American students who availed themselves of the advantages so freely offered them by the universities of France. The contrast with the large number who flock to the German universities was set forth, and the causes of the superior attractions seemingly offered by the latter country were discussed. The memorial led to the formation in Paris of a "Comité Franco-Américain," made up of a number of the most eminent of French educators, some of them holding high official positions in institutions of science and learning. This committee went at its work with a spirit which showed a warm desire to strengthen the bonds of intellectual sympathy between France and America. It was soon found advisable to know what measures would best conduce to the objects in view, especially that of rendering French university teaching useful and attractive to American students, and whether such measures would meet with a response in our own country.

Under these circumstances the writer was asked to form an American branch of the committee, which should serve the double purpose of expressing the feeling of American educators on the subject and, if that feeling proved favorable, of advising the French committee as to what should be done. At first he demurred to the proposition on two grounds. One was, that American educators could not assume the attitude of petitioners before a foreign Government, asking them to change their rules and regulations in favor of our students. Another was, that he did not wish to engage in any movement which would imply unfriendliness towards the German universities, or a desire to dissuade American students from visiting them. These objections were, however, satisfactorily met by the assurance that the movement was not conceived in any spirit of rivalry with Germany, but solely in a desire for closer intellectual sympathy with America; and, so far as the measures proposed were concerned, the American committee would act only as an adviser to that already formed in Paris, and would not be expected to hold any communication with the official authorities in France.

A few of our eminent representative men who held official positions justifying them to speak with authority as representatives of American education, were then invited to make known their views on the subject, and, if favorable, to allow their names to be used as members of the proposed American branch. The responses were, with scarcely an exception, such as to show the French committee that their friendly feelings towards us were cordially reciprocated. The committee formulated a brief statement of what seemed to it the best measures to attain the end in view, and it is expected that these measures will be adopted as soon as circumstances permit.

The writer availed himself of a visit to

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Paris last spring to discuss the subject personally with some of those most interested. The general outcome of the whole movement, so far as developed, is that American students desiring to avail themselves of the instruction of those French schools which are not designed exclusively for aspirants to the Government service will receive a most cordial welcome in France, and will find the treasures of French learning open to them on a scale and with a liberality which cannot be exceeded. The only important question which, so far as I am aware, remains undecided is that of the doctor's degree. The conditions on which this degree is conferred differ very widely in France from what they are in Germany and this country. In France the doctorate is awarded for some important work of original research, far beyond the ordinary doctor's thesis of other countries, and it requires no examination beyond what the aspirant is presumed to have already passed in obtaining the intermediate degree of *Licencié*. Some modifications of this system are in contemplation, but the writer is not advised as to the final outcome. SIMON NEWCOMB.

WASHINGTON, November 21, 1896.

TIVARONI'S ITALIAN RESURRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the Notes of No. 1634 of the *Nation* there is a paragraph on the very comprehensive history of the Italian resurrection, by Tivaroni, which seems to me to do very great injustice to that writer. It is true that there is no attempt at declamation or special pleas in his history, but the entire series is one of the most remarkable works of the historical spirit that I have ever come across, and I have had recent occasion to examine nearly everything that has been written on Italian history. It is so far from being "a ponderous mass of citations," as your note intimates, as to be, in my estimation, the most admirable summary of all the phases of the evolution of Italy from the end of its mediæval condition to the nation as it now exists, which can be found in all literature. It is true that the style is not attractive, and that as literature it is dry, but so far from being, as one might conclude from your note, the work of an "historical hodman," it is the statement, in the temper of a judicial and impartial critic, of the complicated and (to one who has not taken a part in the history itself) incomprehensible tangle of the real national life of Italy. It is not merely the sifting and verifying of that history in all its development, and the reduction to a clear and intelligible statement of everything that needs to be known of it, but it is such an impartial judgment of the men who have taken any considerable part in the formation of Italy as I do not believe exists with reference to any other country. It is to me delightfully free from rhetoric and special pleas, and I do not believe that a reader ignorant of the part taken by the author in Italian politics could guess to what party he belongs.

To any one who knows by actual contact the passionate perversion and exaggeration that disfigure more or less all the contemporary Italian histories of Italy, this is praise enough, but the merit does not limit itself to that. Tivaroni's work is the impartial examination of all these histories and the summing up, with a Rhadamantine impassibility, of their testimony. Everything has been read and weighed, from the bitter partisan records of La Farina and Gualterio to the verbose Corsi and Bersezio; and, simply taken as collation, it is rather the building of the solid framework of the house, to be decorated and stuccoed by others, than the heaping together of the facts of history for the use of later men. It is the work of a man who has lived and taken part with the men and in the events with which he deals; and that there should be no shade of partisan color in it—that it should render such justice, on the one hand, to Cavour and Charles Albert, and on the other to Garibaldi and Mazzini—that, but for knowing something of the life of the writer, I should never conjecture which of the rancorous parties in Italian politics he had belonged to, or rather come out from, is the highest praise which could be given to a contemporary historian, and this Tivaroni deserves. His history will be the basis for all forthcoming histories of Italy, and, diluted with rhetoric and fable, with the advocacy of political idols and partisan fads, will be disguised in innumerable works on Italy; but whatever is wanted to be learned on the growth and present decay of Italian institutions is to be found in these volumes.

Perhaps I mistake the drift of your note, and what was said was meant for praise and to distinguish Tivaroni from the "historical hodman"; and in that case I am only glad that I have had the opportunity to give my testimony to the value of one of the most remarkable and colossal works of modern history, from which I have in my own studies learned more of the growth of Italy than from all other works put together. In future centuries Tivaroni will be as indispensable to the student of the history of modern Italy as Herodotus to that of Greece. It is true that he records many details which are important only to an Italian reader, like the names and condition of the hundreds of martyrs to Italian liberty; and in the profusion of this detail the massive completeness of the work is sometimes disguised. But beyond the mere records of the facts, the author has given in the "Svolgimento del pensiero nazionale" the only existing complete summary of the development of Italian individuality, as distinguished from constitutionalism, and in this he has shown a philosophical acumen which is even more remarkable than the research of the purely historical portion of his work. To have maintained from the beginnings of Italy, through all her tortures and transformations, such a judicial temper, only broken over when it is a question of the inhuman suppressions of the Italian despots, in a pardonable and momentary flash of pious indignation, but never so far as to suppress or distort the facts, and, for the rest, with such calm and impartiality as to seem almost passionless, is, in a man writing of the events of his own time and country, an achievement which places Tivaroni, with all the defects of style and excessive condensation, in the front rank of modern historians.—Yours truly,

W. J. STILLMAN.

ROME, November 5, 1896.

OUR IMPROVED METHODS OF TEACHING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A dozen years or so ago, an engineer residing on the Pacific Coast, desiring to give his boy the best education possible, and influenced by glowing accounts of the new and improved methods of teaching introduced in the Eastern States, brought his boy to Boston, the focus of intellectual improvement.

At the East certain surprising facts were encountered. Thus, the number of college students was not increasing in proportion to the increase of population. Again, the age of the young men entering college was considerably greater than it had been thirty or forty years previously. At Harvard this increase of age is at least eighteen months on the average, as shown by data published by the University. The opinion was everywhere expressed that nowadays young men of seventeen are not mature enough to go to college, although in previous times the sufficiency of their maturity at this age was not seriously questioned. Moreover, there were mutterings concerning the attainments of candidates for admission to the colleges, culminating in the publishment of the Harvard examination papers, which were so poor that no boy writing such stuff could have been graduated from the preparatory school where the engineer studied in the late fifties.

These and similar facts bothered the newcomer. Trained by his professional work to judge theories by their practical results, he did not understand how, with such improved methods of training, the relative number of those desiring a college education could be lessened, the time needed to prepare students for the universities be increased, and perhaps, despite this increased time, the amount of useful knowledge of the languages be sensibly diminished. The excuses offered were to him unsatisfactory. The requirements for admission, it was explained, had been increased; but had not the methods of instruction been immensely improved? The examinations, it was said, are not fair tests of knowledge; the ignorant boys can be "crammed" through, and the good boys "get rattled." This, if true, is sad, for of what use is knowledge which is not utilizable when needed; and how can one discover whether it exists or not, except by such examinations? In practical life, both in business and in the professions, examinations are being held constantly, and men who do not pass them successfully, including those whose knowledge is so loose that it is rattled out of them by the tests, are relegated to the rear. As to the cramming business, it might be argued, with a fair show of reason, that this indicates the need of more numerous or more severe examinations quite as much as the necessity of abolishing them.

Desirous of solving the puzzle, the engineer has been visiting schools, from Massachusetts to Pennsylvania, during a dozen years, observing the methods of instruction, seeking to ascertain what the results actually are, and comparing these results with those obtained in the old-fashioned schools which he attended in his youth. Starting with a faith in the statements which had attracted him from the West, he has been forced slowly to the conclusion that these statements were greatly exaggerated, and that the results obtained by the new methods, under existing social conditions, are not only not so good as had been claimed, but to a certain extent positively bad.

Under existing social conditions, probably owing to them, the school-days in a year are considerably less in number than the holidays. A doctrine has become very popular, that children must not "use their brains" while they are very young. Few children go to school before they are five years old, very many not until seven. In numerous families school education is made entirely secondary to the pursuit of social pleasure. Under the delusion that brain-exercise is detrimental to

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health, thousands of fond parents limit to a minimum the school-work of their children, whom they indulge in almost unlimited social dissipation, blindly attributing the evil effects of this dissipation to an imaginary "overworking" of the brain by study. Favored by this delusion, and ignoring the accumulated experience of the past, doctrinaires have introduced patent processes for making learning easy, whereby children are to be enabled to read without bothering about the individual words, to use language elegantly and grammatically without taking the trouble to study grammar, etc., etc. Such processes are based, apparently, on an undeveloped theory that knowledge can be imparted, like electricity, by induction, or in some other occult manner, without any effort on the part of the recipient. The teacher is to do all the work—to be, as it were, the dynamo and main-line circuit—while the pupil, under the influence of a gentle induced current, glides effortlessly along the path to knowledge. The results of these processes are in accordance with such a basal theory: when the main current is switched off, the induced current ceases, leaving a "dead wire."

In the schools visited, these new and improved methods were found in all stages of development. In some places they were carried to an extreme, in others they were radically modified, but everywhere they had been introduced to a greater or less extent. They had become so fashionable with parents and school committees that the teachers could not resist them. A private school openly rejecting them would have been left without patronage; a public school would have had a change of instructors.

One universally adopted change from the old methods, the results of which change were observed with especial care, was the discarding of the grammar and the dictionary in the study of the dead languages. The use of the dictionary seems to have gone entirely out of fashion. In some schools the grammar also has been practically abolished. In others the declensions, conjugations, and a limited number of the rules are still memorized from the book. In no school visited was the grammar learned by heart as in former days. The universality of this change indicated, *a priori*, very beneficial results. But search *a posteriori* failed to disclose such results. The useful drill of the memory has been lost. The mental exercise of interpreting and applying the rules, which was demanded of the pupils by good teachers under the old system, has been abandoned. Definite information, expressible in clear language, seems to have been replaced by hazy ideas communicable only in stumbling sentences. The simultaneous acquisition of a knowledge of the English language has vanished. English now seems to have become a separate study entirely unconnected with any other. By weary verbal iteration the conscientious teacher now seeks to impart the necessary grammatical knowledge to the pupil and to fix it in his memory. Often the instructors in the secondary schools are found teaching the elementary grammatical principles of English which have been taught before in the primary schools by the new methods, and, apparently, have been entirely forgotten. It is said that the professors are obliged to teach them a third time in the colleges.

Another general change is the abolition of exact marks. The students are no longer ranked singly from No. 1 to No. *x*, but are lumped in masses A to E. No one now stands at the head of his class, for the classes have been decapitated. This change seems to have been introduced by the teachers without any strong demand by the parents and with none at all by the scholars. The beneficial results seem perceptible only to the teachers, who, nevertheless, are deploring the decadence of popular interest in scholarship, and wondering at the prominence of athletics, where, untrammelled by sentimentalism and of their own free will, young men subject themselves to the severest competitive examinations, the prizes of which are publicly awarded amid the enthusiastic approval of thousands.

To note all the changes observed would require far too much space. But one other may be mentioned, because it has been adopted in public schools against the judgment of the majority of instructors and on account of its unfortunate results. This is the multiplication of studies. The Frenchman's criticism of the sermon is applicable here—"An immense amount of nothing at all without any place to put it."

CALIFORNIA.

TAYLOR THE PLATONIST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am writing a book on the life and works of Thomas Taylor the Platonist, which I want to make as exhaustive as practicable. The favor of any information about Taylor's life or writings, the names and addresses of any of his descendants, or inedited letters and MSS. by him, will be most heartily appreciated. I am specially desirous to borrow or purchase copies of 'A New System of Religion,' Amsterdam, 1789, and 'The Spirit of All Religions,' Amsterdam, 1790, which are said to be by Taylor. These titles perhaps represent only one book.

Thomas M. Johnson,
Formerly Ed. of the *Platonist*.

Osceola, Mo., November 16, 1896.

Notes.

J. M. Dent & Co., London, having brought to a successful termination their original little separate-volume "Temple Shakspere," under Mr. Israel Gollancz's skilful editing, now purpose following it up with other old English dramatists, beginning with Webster and his "Duchess of Malfi," edited by C. Vaughan.

A. C. McClurg & Co. have nearly ready 'Mistress Spitfire,' by J. S. Fletcher, and 'On the Red Staircase,' a Russian romance by Imlay Taylor.

In behalf of the New York History Club and of "civic enthusiasm," three ladies, Maud Wilder Goodwin, Alice Carrington Royce, and Ruth Putnam, purpose editing "The Half Moon"—a series of papers on historic New York, conformable to the Boston Old South Leaflets. The contributors will be of both sexes. Brentano's will have the pamphlets for sale.

Francis P. Harper is about to publish 'Walt Whitman, the Man,' by Thomas Donaldson; 'Was General Thomas Slow at Nashville?' by Gen. H. V. Boynton; 'Rainy Days in a Library,' by Sir Herbert Maxwell; and Peter Cunningham's 'Story of Nell Gwyn.'

A new selection from the Poems of William Wordsworth, made and edited by Prof. Dowden, is announced by Ginn & Co.

One of the most timely as well as most pleasing revivals in the present publishing season is De Amicis's 'Constantinople,' translated by Maria Hornor Lansdale (Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co.). The two volumes are printed in an open text, very decoratively and tastefully bound, and illustrated with a goodly number of well-chosen photogravures of the city and its inhabitants. The qualities of De Amicis's narrative are notorious, and this work has run through at least fifteen editions in the original Italian. We should not omit mention of an index and a generous folding map.

The green and gold volume in which Macmillan combines 'The School for Scandal and The Rivals' owes its distinction to Mr. Augustine Birrell's airy introduction and to Mr. Edmund J. Sullivan's pen-and-ink illustrations. These last are numerous and sufficient in draughtsmanship and composition; natural rather than stagey in the meagre accessories to the character figures. The text is bold and the binding rich.

The two-volume complete Browning just brought out by the same publishers (Globe Edition), though extremely well printed, attracts attention chiefly by its cheapness. Since the frontispieces show the youthful and the aged Browning, the poor effigy stamped upon the cover might well have been dispensed with. Mr. Birrell's hand appears here, too, in an editorial advertisement and in the occasional brief explanations which usher in the poems. In 'The Ring and the Book' the lines are numbered.

Mr. Birrell, once more, in standing as sponsor for the new Boswell of the Messrs. Constable (New York: Macmillan), confesses to a holy zeal for the book itself, and cries anathema on any editing that should turn the reader's eye away from the all-important text. He had made many notes, but, on reflection, had stricken most of them out: suppose they were to lead some school board to commit *lèse*-Boswell and prescribe that immortal biographer for an "exam"! Besides, Mr. Birkbeck Hill is the king whose monumental edition speaks woe to any man coming after him. Mr. Birrell wisely and frankly declines the competition, and gives us little beyond Malone's text and notes. On the other hand, these six light and attractive volumes ingratiate themselves with the reader rather more than do Mr. Hill's heavier tomes, and thus we must pronounce Mr. Birrell's edition well fitted for its avowed and pious end.

A very pretty book is 'The Lives of the Troubadours,' translated from the mediæval Provençal, with introductory matter and notes, and with specimens of their poetry rendered into English, by Ida Farnell (London: David Nutt). At the same time it makes upon us the same impression of curious ineffectiveness which we derive from almost all English essays in this field. The chief matter of the book is an English rendering of those biographies of the Provençal lyric poets which are preserved to us in manuscripts of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. In general, Miss Farnell's version is trustworthy; and yet we cannot help being surprised that she has followed the Provençal text as given by Mahn, instead of the more recent, as well as more complete and accurate, edition of Chabaneau (Toulouse, 1885). Apparently she has never heard of this latter publication, nor of several of the most important studies upon the subject-matter of the biographies; *e. g.*, O. Schultz's "Lebensverhältnisse der italienischen Trobadors" (*Zeitschrift für rom. Philologie*, Bd. 7). As a consequence, her notes are often defective in important information, and at times

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very misleading. The translations of Provençal lyrics, of which many are given, are in the main pleasing, often really graceful. They make no attempt to reproduce the intricate forms of the originals, and in many cases depart somewhat widely from the exact sense. Still, they will give the unprofessional reader a good idea of the kind of poetry that flourished in Southern France in the Middle Ages. But why, we ask of this book as of several others of a similar kind, when so much was done, could not the author have done a little more, and made her work really adequate for the needs of all classes of students? We confidently believe that, in real truth, a dilettante treatment of such a subject is in the long run as unsatisfactory to the general public as to technical scholars.

Another translation of 'La Petite Fadette' has been made by Mrs. James M. Lancaster (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). It scarcely seems to be needed after the admirable one made by Miss Sedgwick and published only two years ago by Geo. H. Richmond & Co. That was good enough to serve for all time; but this is good too, though lacking in literalness, and the ever-fresh waters of the story cannot be distributed through too many channels. If only translators of the same book would avoid the same mistakes! It will be a pleasant day for the admirers of George Sand's style when some translator will get the very first sentence of this book right. One and all they begin, alertly: "After the terrible days of June, 1848. . . ." They never attempt to reproduce the wave-like flow of the words: "C'est à la suite des néfastes journées de Juin, 1848, que. . . ." It would be quite worth while to translate the whole book still once more to show that an English-speaking mind can feel and express the difference between "à la suite" and "after," "néfastes" and "terrible," "journées" and "days." A translation made by the pen that could communicate the impression conveyed by that simple sentence would be a translation really worth having.

'In Jail with Charles Dickens' is the sensational title of an entertaining little book of no very permanent value, by Mr. Alfred Trumble (New York: Francis P. Harper). It consists of chapters on Newgate, the Fleet, the Marshalsea, the King's Bench Prison, the New York Tombs, and "Philadelphia's Bastile" (that is, the Eastern State Penitentiary at Philadelphia)—all of them prisons to which Dickens gave special attention. To the Penitentiary, indeed, he gave a kind of attention which those of our readers who remember the appearance of 'American Notes' may be trusted not to have yet forgotten. Mr. Trumble knows his Dickens and writes clearly and without flourish. His book, though not a contribution to knowledge or to literature, is good reading for a leisure hour. The frontispiece is worthy of preservation, being a well-executed copy of an old print representing the destruction of the King's Bench Prison by the rioters of 1780.

Prof. O. F. Emerson's 'History of the English Language,' which appeared some two years ago, has apparently met with the success it so well deserved, and has taken its place among the most approved manuals for college study. The author now comes before the public with a 'Brief History' of English (Macmillan), designed for more elementary classes, which merits an equally favorable reception. It is not a mere abridgment of the larger work, but is carefully revised throughout and in great part rewritten. We know of no book on this difficult and important subject which can with greater confidence be put into the hands of beginners. It is also heartily to be recommended to that large class of mature readers who wish to get an accurate knowledge of the history of our mother tongue, but have scanty leisure and are frightened by technicalities.

As there were good reasons for deploring the death of that eminent and useful citizen of Baltimore, the late Severn Teackle Wallis, there was a good reason for a memorial edition of his Writings (Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.). Two of the four volumes constitute a reprint of his 'Glimpses of Spain: Notes of an Unfinished Tour in 1847' (1849) and 'Spain: Her Institutions, Politics, and Public Men' (1853)—works now as much lost sight of as the official errands which took their author to the peninsula, but possessing a permanent value and the former not a little charm. Mr. Wallis's memory would, in our opinion, have been more honored by furnishing these standard works with indexes than by compiling the remaining two volumes of miscellaneous addresses, reviews, and poems. These, too, have their value, partly as autobiography, and partly as the product of a Southern and an irreconcilable Confederate mind; but who of Mr. Wallis's posterity might not blush to *commemorate* his joint review of Barnum's Life and Mrs. Stowe's 'Sunny Memories of Foreign Lands,' with its bracketing of a "common impostor" and a "spiritual inebriate"? The poems as a whole are mediocre, but are often animated by a pure and deep feeling, as in the verses on his dead boy; more rarely by a touch of humor, as in the album stanza—

> "I only beg that not too glad
> Nor bright your dreams may be,
> For then—the chance were very bad
> That you should dream of me."

Our Chimmie Faddens have tempted not a few persons of refinement to venture into the gutter for a pastime, and a new resource is offered to these in 'Phil May's Gutter-Snipes'—fifty sketches in pen and ink by the artist on whom Du Maurier's *Punch* mantle has fallen (Macmillan). They mostly bear descriptive labels, with rarely a legend in dialogue; the Street Arabs are oftenest shown at play, sometimes at their tricks, once annoying a drunken woman. The caricature is not of a high order, and does not, to our mind, betray a real humorist. These are gutter "kodaks," and little more.

Readers old enough to remember George T. Lanigan's delicious 'Fables "out of the World"' will find the text of 'Fables for the Times,' by H. W. Phillips (New York: R. H. Russell & Son), flat, stale, and unprofitable. Nor has his colleague of the pencil, T. R. Sullivant, produced animal caricatures, properly so called. He should go for lessons to the genial artist of the Idylls of the Desert in the *Fliegende Blätter*.

It would be ungracious to speak disparagingly of any of the writings of Miss Margaret Stokes; for, whatever be the defects, they are outweighed by the merits. Her latest book, 'Three Months in the Forests of France: Pilgrimage in Search of Vestiges of the Irish Saints in France' (London: Bell; New York: Macmillan), judged in the light of accurate scholarship, will not satisfy our present requirements. The writer adds little or nothing to our previous knowledge of Columba, Fursa, Gobain. Such was doubtless not her purpose or expectation, the book being made up in great part of letters to friends, and dedicated to the Church History class of Alexandra College, Dublin. Its style is the epistolary, *i. e.*, rambling and diffuse. For all that, the book is profitable reading. It imparts a realizing sense of early Frankish Christianity and of the distinctive Irish character and the part played by it in shaping Western civilization. The theme, an interesting one, does not lose in interest or in dignity under the hands of Miss Stokes. Especially would we commend the illustrations; they are both numerous and good. Some are of ancient monuments, others are of modern scenes in France, Ireland, and even England. Not a few are from the pencil of the writer herself, and these we reckon among the best. They suggest artistic repose and the spirit of the scene. No. 16, the Vale of Annegrai, though somewhat blurred in the printing, is unmistakably French.

'The Elements of Gaelic Grammar,' by H. C. Gillies, M.D. (London: Nutt), is an attempt to present in 176 pages the chief phenomena of the living Celtic speech of Scotland. The author, though not wholly unacquainted with the methods of historical grammar, is evidently not familiar with them; witness his remarks upon Aspiration and Eclipsis. Also, his treatment of "broad" and "slender" in Celtic phonetics is unsatisfactory. The print is remarkably clear but wasteful of space, and the book is in general too narrowly planned for its subject. In the hands of a practised teacher it might be of service, but to one who wishes to study Gaelic without such a master it is quite inadequate.

A booklet on 'Fra Angelico' by Domenico Tumiati (Florence: Paggi) has no scientific value, no illuminating or even humbly guiding purpose, but contents itself with interspersing vague sentences of praise with copious extracts from Ruskin and Rossetti. Were these translated, Signor Tumiati might actually have been of some service to his equally aspiring but less privileged countrymen. As it is, we can recommend the book only to students of retarded "movements."

One turns from it with relief to a book recording travels in a rickety cab over the length and breadth of Umbria ('Pèlerinages Ombriens,' by J. C. Brousolle; Paris: Fischbacher). The author is a lively Frenchman who writes with unusual *verve*. He certainly has seen all the places he describes—a great merit in books on Italy—and has much to say of his impressions and small adventures. His information is exact, and of course is chiefly about works of art. The numerous illustrations are modest but helpful.

The issues of the *National Geographic Magazine* for September, October, and November contain numerous articles of current interest, freely illustrated with views and charts. Such are Mrs. Scidmore's paper on the recent destructive earthquake wave on the coast of Japan, Consul Man's account of the Nansen Polar Expedition, and Mr. George F. Becker's temperate and impartial review of the Witwatersrand and the revolt of the Uitlanders—what he justly calls "a capitalist revolt." This last deserves to be read in connection with Mr. Bryce's articles on the same subject in the *Century*, and is especially valuable for its statement of the attitude of the American Uitlanders towards the rising. Mr. Becker predicts a great future development in a direction different from gold-mining, when the extensive coal and iron deposits are used for manufacturing purposes.

The principal articles in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for November are upon the Yukon country in Alaska, and Angola in Africa. This latter country is described as one of the most fertile in the world, yet almost wholly undeveloped, though the Portu-

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guese have been in possession of it for four centuries. This is due mainly to defects of administration, the officials being chosen, not for their capacity to govern the natives, but often as a punishment for some offence. The European army consists chiefly of military convicts. Another reason for the lack of growth is that, of the two crops solely cultivated, coffee and sugar, the latter is used mostly in the manufacture of rum, which is sold to the natives. The soil is rich in mineral deposits—iron, copper, and gold being found in all parts—but the mining "concessions are granted by the Portuguese on terms calculated to crush an infant industry, the price of the minerals extracted being fixed at Loanda."

The chief interest in the account of a journey round Siam, by J. S. Black, with which the *Geographical Journal* for November opens, lies in the contrast drawn between the regions opened respectively to French and British influence. The western basin of the Mekong, which, by the recent treaty with Siam, has become practically a French river, was found by the traveller to be an almost uninhabited wilderness swarming with wild animals. The few inhabitants remaining of the once dense population, witnessed to by the "extraordinary number of ruined cities," are stricken with fever, smallpox, and cholera. They have a custom of placing before their houses, when there is illness, as a supplication for mercy to the demon of the disease, an earthenware pot marked with blue or white bands; and "the number of these pots in some places," says Mr. Black, "was perfectly alarming." When the watershed between the Mekong and Menam basins was crossed, the change was very striking. In place of the flat, jungly plains in which marshes and brackish streams abound, were hills, sparkling brooks, fertile valleys, and an active, well-to-do people living in large and solidly built houses. The aggregate foreign trade of this part of Siam, both of imports and exports, the latter being chiefly teak and rice, is estimated at eighteen million dollars annually, while that of the Mekong basin is only one million. There is also a scholarly account of the Roman roads and defences of the upper Euphrates, in which Mr. Yorke gives as the most important result of the recent Hogarth expedition the discovery of the site of one of the four frontier stations, as well as an "important tributary of the Euphrates before unknown."

The last Bulletin of the *Société de Géographie* is wholly devoted to Africa. A description of a journey across Tripoli is followed by accounts of two exploring expeditions in the French Congo, and a sketch of the different attempts of the Franciscans to reach Abyssinia in the fifteenth century. The number closes with a vivacious account of a journey on the west coast of Madagascar, which is marked by great moral callousness. When the territory of a native chief was entered by the Frenchman, his present consisted mainly of rum and gin, with the inevitable consequence of an interview ending in a drunken orgy.

The State of New Jersey, which was the first to produce a topographical contour map of its territory, on the liberal scale of an inch to the mile, has used this work of its Geological Survey as the foundation of what is probably the best relief map ever constructed in this country. From this in turn has just been published by the Survey at Trenton a beautifully executed lithographic sheet of the State on the scale of an inch to four miles, which is incontestably the most important contribution to the teaching of geography yet made in New Jersey, and a useful instrument in such instruction anywhere. The strongly marked difference in conformation between the glacial and subglacial portions of the peninsula conveys a lesson almost without the need of a text. Within a range of elevation from tidewater to 1,800 feet, the river systems, whose singular courses have a singular history, are readily grasped by the eye, and afford the beginning of a real topographical knowledge of the State. The ordinary geologic and the as yet incomplete surface-geologic maps issued by the Survey leave nothing to be desired by the student of this relief map, which some of the New England States have materials for imitating.

A preliminary geological map of New York State has lately been issued after years of special study. It has been constructed under the direction of Prof James Hall, State Geologist, by W. J. McGee, printed by the United States Geological Survey, and published by authority of the State Legislature under date of 1894. It is in six large sheets, on a scale of 1:316,800. The base-map has no indication of topographic relief, but represents villages and cities, roads and railroads, etc. Twenty-nine colors represent as many subdivisions of the geological scale; glacial deposits not being included, and no indication being given of the southern limit of the drift. Certain areas are left blank, where information is still wanting, as, around the rim of the Adirondacks, the Hudson valley east of the river from about Chatham to Poughkeepsie, and Long Island. Otherwise, the map is a great improvement on anything hitherto published.

—A curious inquiry, engagingly set forth, and relating to "The Colonel and his Command," has fitly the place of honor in the *American Historical Review* for October. The writer, Mr. Julian Corbett, essays a destructive criticism of the explanations heretofore given of the origin of the title of colonel, and certainly leaves them discredited. His own surmise, that that officer of the Renaissance period once bore a baton in the semblance of a classic column, he offers for what it is worth; neither military work nor portrait can he cite in its support. Solution must come, if ever, from some Italian 'Oxford Dictionary' of the future. Entertaining also in its way is Prof. James D. Butler's article on "British Convicts Shipped to American Colonies," the result of research in contemporary periodicals, with many a shrewd and diligent resort to other sources beyond the histories. He bids those—"the Japhets who seek for their fathers"—who would go deeper and discover the names of the transported, consult the 110 MS. volumes of Old Bailey proceedings; but with a necessary caution in regard to aliases that will discourage the most ardent and insensitive genealogist. Prof. Butler lets it be seen what qualification of the term convict should be made in our conception of the "transports." Thus, in 1773, one John Lowe, who was to have been executed at Tyburn for returning from transportation, was reprieved because the original offence had been "receiving a shilling for the carriage of a goose that had been stolen, of which theft he declared that he was ignorant." Quite a different kind of transportation is the theme of Bernard C. Steiner in his article on "Rev. Thomas Bray and his American Libraries," a useful addition to recent revelations of the bookishness of our Southern gentry. Bray, an Oxford graduate, was bent on equipping with learned apparatus the first Anglican clergy sent over to Maryland, and to that end devised and carried out a general scheme of lending and parochial libraries for the British colonies. In connection with this he founded the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, which will soon celebrate its 200th anniversary, and later the Society for Propagating the Gospel in Foreign Parts. Fragments of these libraries still exist in several States of the Union. Their contents were varied, and by no means wholly theological. Bray's apparent reliance on the support and extension of his libraries by the people of the colonies was doomed to disappointment. We have space to mention further only Charles H. Haskins's lucid account of the Vatican Archives as now accessible to scholars, and Dr. Charles Gross's list of town records of Great Britain.

—With the assistance of Prof. Jesse Macy of Iowa College, Mr. James Bryce has prepared an abridged edition, in one volume, of his 'American Commonwealth' (Macmillan), for the use of colleges and high schools. Of the first volume of the larger work, all but two chapters and the appendix are here retained, but shortened by skilful omission of many sentences and paragraphs unsuited to a text-book, and of many of the comparisons drawn from English political usage. The selections from the second volume seem to us less adequate. We have the chapters on political parties and their history, on nominating conventions, and on public opinion, but we miss the keen accounts of "machine" politics, rings and bosses, spoils and corruption, and electoral methods, which helped to make Mr. Bryce's book such a revelation to most Americans, and which no teacher or student can afford to neglect. The same method of condensation that has been applied to the first volume would have allowed the inclusion of most of these chapters in the present abridgment without increasing unduly either the size or the cost; for the volume as it stands contains about 175 pages less than the original vol. i., but sells at the same price. Notwithstanding these omissions, however, the book in its present form is a real boon to students and teachers, and will doubtless be read and pondered by many who have been deterred by the size and cost of the larger work. Where the lecture system of instruction prevails, there is no better book than this to put into the hands of college students. To say, as one must, that it is not a very perfect example of what a text-book should be, is not to detract in the least from its merits, for the original work was never designed for such a purpose, and has been adopted extensively as a class-room manual only because of its commanding excellence in other directions. From the pedagogic standpoint, the volume before us not only is lacking in orderly arrangement, concise statement, and didactic discrimination, but fails, like the larger work, to include many details which, if not very interesting to read, are extremely important to know. This comes, of course, from dwelling more upon the political than upon the administrative side of American government, and is a defect only when an attempt is made to turn a philosophical treatise into a text-book. It is rather surprising that American history and American government are about the only departments of high-school and college study in which we have not, as yet, a single text-book to which serious exceptions must not be taken. In the latter field, this abridgment of Mr. Bryce's great

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work is superior in many ways to anything yet offered, as it is certainly the most readable; but we do not think that Prof. Hart need be deterred by it from publishing his promised contribution to the American Citizen Series, on "Actual Government, as Applied under American Conditions."

—Mr. Moorfield Storey's interesting address on "A Year's Legislation," delivered last summer before the American Bar Association, has been reprinted (Philadelphia: Dando Printing and Publishing Co.), and makes a pamphlet of some seventy-four pages. It is a review of the "most noteworthy changes in statute law on points of general interest made in the several States and by Congress" during a year, and, notwithstanding the dryness of the subject, is entertaining as well as interesting, owing to the shrewd originality and point of Mr. Storey's style and the skill with which he presents his facts. Most of what he says is of more than professional interest. For instance, the first fact brought out in his review is exactly that emphasized by the recent election—that the interests affected by legislation throughout the country are homogeneous, and the essential feature of the country its unity. "The same problems confront us all alike, and are dealt with in the same way by Louisiana and Massachusetts, by Maryland and Utah." In the legislation of the year there is no indication that any social or political questions or antagonisms or passions or interests have created sectional lines, or made possible sectional legislation, such as slavery once produced. One State, for example, making arrangements for a constitutional convention, provides that it shall have no power to impair the obligation of the State debt. It is the State of Louisiana which does this. The State of South Carolina has passed the most enlightened statute abrogating charter jobbery. Civil-service reform has been adopted by Utah. Labor legislation is governed by the same principles, whether we examine the statute-book of New Jersey, Maryland, or Mississippi. The feeling against Trusts and corporations finds expression in all sorts of queer statutes, and they are sometimes queerer in one State than in another, but they all spring from the same economic misapprehensions. Massachusetts undertakes to fix the price of gas, while Mississippi allows any producer or owner of anything the cost or price of which is "affected" by any "unlawful Trust or combine," to recover $500 and all actual damages in a suit against any party to the "combine" or any of its attorneys, officers, or agents, whether they combined in Mississippi or elsewhere. So it goes on through the various heads examined by Mr. Storey, until we come to the subject of Railway Reorganization, in which case we find that Kentucky turns out to be the first State which has attempted to correct the notorious abuses from which the security-holders of railroads in the hands of reorganization committees and receivers suffer.

—The next point made by Mr. Storey is negative, but important. If it were true that any class, like the farmers or laborers, had been systematically oppressed in any part of the country for the last twenty years by anybody, the fact would certainly make itself apparent in the statute-books of the States affected. But there is no evidence of a local or class sense of wrong anywhere. Even the labor and anti monopoly statutes, he might have added, are not the result of any "uprising." They are always passed cheerfully anywhere the moment they are demanded. And this brings us to the final point - that there is a rapid increase all over the country of statutes of a socialistic tendency, sometimes by means of the use of the power of taxation, sometimes through the "police power." The pamphlet is really a valuable picture of American society in movement drawn by an exceptionally skilful hand.

—At this season's first meeting of the Hellenic Society in London, Mr. Arthur Evans read a paper on "Further Discoveries of the Early Cretan Script," the most striking of which he had related at Liverpool in his presidential address before the Anthropological Section of the British Association. In recent visits to Crete he had gathered additional evidence corroborating the evidence submitted in his paper read before the Hellenic Society two years ago. The new discoveries made still more certain the existence in prehistoric Crete of two interrelated systems of writing—one pictographic, the other linear. That the latter, which belongs to the Mycenæan era, and shows points of resemblance to Hittite script, was evolved out of the former, became still more clear from a fresh series of seals which was described. Examples of an earlier and pre-Mycenæan linear script on Cretan seals, which had curious points of resemblance to Greek and Phœnician letters, were also discussed. This part of Mr. Evans's paper consisted in the presentation of evidence not differing materially from the great mass of examples discussed in his previous paper, published in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* for 1894 (vol. xiv., part ii.), which were chiefly engraved seals and *graffiti* on vases.

—A new piece of evidence, however, differing in character from anything previously discovered, was now presented. Mr. Evans described in detail the unearthing of a part of a libation-table of steatite (soapstone), imitated from a XIIth Dynasty Egyptian model, and bearing the remaining half of what seemed to be a dedication in Cretan linear characters. The inscription consisted of nine letters with two punctuations, and was of the highest importance, as showing that this pre-Phœnician script was applied to monumental as well as personal objects. The Egyptian affinities of this libation-table itself fitted in with other signs of intimate connection between Crete and the Egypt of the XIIth Dynasty supplied by the decorative designs of sealstones and steatite vases. The place of its discovery, on the other hand, had its bearings in another connection, since the table was found in the cave of Psychzo, the "Dictæan Cave" of the Cretan legend of Zeus's birth. As to Cretan relations with Egypt, this Cretan imitation of an object of Egyptian *cultus* indicated more than mere commercial intercourse, and pointed to continuous land contact, suggesting, indeed, that the old empire of Egypt influenced Crete through Libyan settlements in the island. Upon this hypothesis the beginnings of the earliest and pre-Mycenæan Cretan linear script, which also showed Egyptian affinities, might ultimately be discovered in Tripoli. A remarkable parallelism existed, in fact, between Cretan signs and the early Libyan alphabets. Converging lines of evidence showed that the inscribed libation-table (found, as it was, under a votive and sacrificial stratum of Mycenæan date) could not be brought down later than about 2000 B.C.

—Few scientific societies have been founded more securely or operated more successfully than the American Ornithologists' Union, which has just held its fourteenth annual congress in Cambridge. Its membership includes every ornithologist of special note in the world, its financial status is sound, the *Auk* does not suffer in comparison with the English *Ibis*, and the yearly reunions have always proved enjoyable occasions, whose scientific aspects are mitigated by social amenities, with a touch of missionary enterprise in warming up public interest in bird-life. On the last occasion the Union was received with an address of welcome by Prof. Goodale on behalf of Harvard University, which placed two lecture-rooms at its disposition; the resident ornithologists of the Nuttall Club entertained their visiting members handsomely at the Colonial Club, and President Brewster gave a series of receptions at his house and in his private museum, finishing a lavish hospitality with an excursion to his hunting-lodge near Concord. One of the two most marked features of the scientific sessions was the exhibition of some of the original manuscript journals of Audubon, made by Dr. Coues on behalf of Miss M. R. Audubon, who was present in person. The other was Mr. A. H. Thayer's out-door demonstration of some remarkable facts in the protective coloration of birds. The public programme occupied three days, besides two others devoted to routine business and to setting the fashion in bird-nomenclature for the current year. The officers of last year were reëlected, and the policy of the Union continues unchanged in its rigid exclusiveness regarding the Active, Honorary, and Foreign memberships, offset by its liberality in respect of its Associates and Correspondents. The fifteenth Congress will be held in New York about this time next year.

RAE'S SHERIDAN.

Sheridan: A Biography. By W. Fraser Rae. With an introduction by Sheridan's great-grandson, the Marquis of Dufferin and Ava. With portraits. 2 vols. Henry Holt & Co. 1896.

AFTER a period of prosperity, Richard Brinsley Sheridan, like his father and his grandfather, fell upon evil times. His triumphs were numerous and so were his misfortunes. One of them was that he failed to get a good contemporary biographer. We can hardly explain the circumstance by Gray's dictum that "a favourite has no friend." Sheridan had friends among men of literary taste as well as among politicians. The trouble was that most of his intimates were too brilliant to assume the humble rôle of biographer. Moore knew him well and was an Irishman to boot. He ought to have produced a much better 'Life' than he did do. He failed from sheer ennui. He became tired of the subject before he had fairly started it. The following passage from his diary explains why his performance is so poor: "I often wish Sheridan, Miss Linley, and Major Mathews at the Devil."

Mr. Fraser Rae comes into the field to supplant Moore, Dr. Watkins, and Prof. Smyth. He has, of course, the great disadvantage of writing eighty years after his subject's death. Sheridan's genius was of the sparkling variety. We open a fresh volume about him with fear and trembling lest the champagne should be decanted. Fortunately we find that, in the present case, we have to do with a serious historian, and not with a belated retailer of Sheridania. Mr. Rae's opportunities for collecting material have been excellent. Lord

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Dufferin, the most distinguished of Sheridan's descendants, is his sponsor, and the family archives have been opened to him without reserve. The Duke of Devonshire has furnished papers, and Mr. Gladstone recollections of recollections. Mr. Bancroft has described for him the modern presentation of Sheridan's dramas, and Sir Henry Irving has contributed a criticism of Sheridan as a playwright. The portraits and facsimiles are in the best style.

While an official biographer derives assistance from access to valuable sources, it is hard for him to be impartial. In the case of Mr. Rae, the difficulty is very considerable because he has always been a devoted admirer of Sheridan. It was his Memoir on 'Wilkes, Sheridan, Fox: The Opposition under George III.,' which first attracted the attention of Lord Dufferin and led him to suggest that Mr. Rae "should undertake a complete biography of Sheridan." Lord Dufferin is careful to explain that Mr. Rae's narrative must not "in any way be regarded as an Apologia. He possesses the confidence of Sheridan's descendants, because the family know from his other writings that he is studiously impartial and conscientiously accurate. Accuracy and impartiality are all that they bargained for, tempered by that benevolence of treatment of which the most blameless stand in need." We are not disposed to quarrel about terms, especially as apologia is ambiguous and often misapplied. But if Mr. Rae has succeeded in avoiding the strain of an apologia, he has not avoided the strain of a vindication. It will be remembered that Lord Macaulay, after his defeat in the Edinburgh election of 1847, sat down at once to the composition of some stanzas concerning his own career. He brings a number of fairies to his infant bedside and relates what they did and said. Mr. Rae uses the same imagery, although he keeps to prose. He brings the fairies to 12 Dorset Street, Dublin, shortly after Sheridan's birth, and makes their queen prophesy many desirable things. When she has ceased speaking, a wicked fairy predicts that the babe will have "all his grandfather's levity and thriftlessness, and all his father's ill-luck"; also that his second marriage will be unfortunate, and that his own countrymen will circulate untrue, dishonorable stories about him. "Having exhausted her power for working mischief, she shook her tiny fist at the sleeping infant and faded into the darkness. Thereafter the moon shone forth and brightened the bed-chamber. The Queen of the Fairies kissed the eyelids and mouth of the infant whom she had taken under her protection, and softly vanished amid the tinkling of silvery bells." This somewhat rhapsodical beginning shows the extent of Mr. Rae's sympathy for Sheridan. He is accurate in statement and exposes many calumnies, notably those regarding Sheridan's deathbed. His chief biographical fault is that he carries "benevolence of treatment" a little too far. He softens hard outlines; he supplies the mantle of charity which the reader, left to himself, would doubtless cast over the declining years of the brilliant Irishman.

In venturing this criticism we have said all that we have to say in depreciation of Mr. Rae's interesting volumes. Sheridan has delighted the world, and it is an ungrateful business to deny him any portion of praise. Let us turn to Mr. Rae's account of his happier years. Two women inseparably connected with Sheridan are here described with much fulness and with a new charm—his mother and his first wife. Each of them has an individual claim to remembrance on the score of accomplishments. Frances Chamberlaine wrote the 'Memoirs of Sidney Biddulph,' which Fox styled the best novel of the age, and which the Abbé Prévost translated into French. Elizabeth Linley was one of the most rapturous singers of her generation. In the ordinary sketch of Sheridan's life she drops out of sight after the Bath episode, or, at least, after her marriage. Mr. Rae never loses sight of her from 1770 till her interment in Wells Cathedral. The best thing in Sheridan's character was his devotion to her amid the storm of flattery which buffeted him during the heyday of success. Lord Dufferin calls her "the angelic woman to whom Sheridan was united under such romantic circumstances, who shared his earliest trials, whose sweetness and beauty shed an additional grace on his subsequent triumphs." By his just portrayal of the first Mrs. Sheridan, Mr. Rae has enriched biography with a new and charming character.

For thirty years Sheridan's life was overflowingly full of incident. He moved in at least four circles, literary, parliamentary, dramatic, fashionable, and was a star in them all. With so much material at hand, Mr. Rae must have found it difficult to keep his memoir within the reasonable limit of two short volumes. He secures conciseness by a topical treatment. Indeed, he comes nearer to the critic or essayist than to the annalist. Economizing space on the unimportant years, he is able to describe important incidents at length. Sheridan's life might well be made the subject of a five-act play, ending with the success of the "School for Scandal" or with the Warren Hastings trial. The first act of such a play would centre at Bath, and, of course, Miss Linley would be the heroine. Mr. Rae's account of Sheridan's intimacy with Halhed, of the elopement, and of the duel with Major Mathews in London, is by far the most authentic and the most graphic story of these events which has yet been printed. His extracts from the letters of the two ardent and venturesome lovers are enough to put the banal novelist of modern days to shame. Here is a picture of Miss Linley writing at midnight to her "dear Horatio" (vol. i., p. 192):

"Upon my knees, half-nacked, once more I am going to tire you with my nonsense. I could not bear to see this little blank without filling it up. Tho' I do not know with what, as I have almost exhausted the Budget of news which I had colected since our long absence. I do insist that you write to me, you lazy wretch; can't you take so small a trouble? I can receive your letter by the same method. My sister is very impatient that I don't come into bed, but I feel more happiness in this situation, tho' I am half froze, than in the warmest bed in England . . ."

Mr. Rae's narrative of Sheridan's years of prosperity in London is equally divided between Drury Lane and St. Stephen's. Considering his hero to be "the greatest dramatist since Shakspere, and the greatest orator who ever addressed the House of Commons," Mr. Rae is bound to do him justice in both capacities. As a contribution to biography, the dramatic part of the work is far more important than the political part. Mr. Rae establishes an important point in proving that Sheridan was without lust of office. On the other hand, his personal relations with "the first gentleman of Europe" are not very satisfactorily presented. When Mr. Rae gets Sheridan on the boards of the theatre, he has nothing to explain or defend, and he has new information to relate. One of his discoveries is a revision of the "School for Scandal," which Sheridan prepared for publication at the instance of Ridgway.

Mr. Rae says little in praise of the second Mrs. Sheridan, and it is clear that her memory is not warmly cherished by the first wife's descendants. Relations between husband and wife became strained in 1810, and Sheridan drew up a statement, "covering twenty-four closely written pages of quarto paper," in his own defence. The substance of it is expressed in two sentences (vol. ii., p. 218): "I have said before, you do not know me; in truth you do not in the least. You should judge of my conduct, character, and principles upon a larger scale of observation, and not from the defects of daily life which arise from the failings I acknowledge."

It is greatly to Mr. Rae's credit that he does not seek to make his book readable by repeating worn-out and apocryphal stories of Sheridan's wit. When he wishes to show what good things Sheridan could say, he selects gems from authentic plays and speeches. The first effect of his volumes will be to send readers post-haste to the "Duenna," the "Critic," the "Rivals," and the "School for Scandal."

Sheridan has a double claim upon his tomb in Westminster, and he still has a double claim upon our gratitude. We are far enough away from him now to judge his work and his genius fairly. He has suffered much from detraction, and no one will grudge him this competent and sympathetic biography.

THE ALEXANDER LEGEND.

The Life and Exploits of Alexander the Great; being a series of translations of the Ethiopic Histories of Alexander by the Pseudo-Callisthenes and other writers. With introduction, etc., by E. A. Wallis Budge, Litt.D., F.S.A. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1896.

Comment Alexandre devint Dieu en Égypte. Par G. Maspero. Annuaire de l'École Pratique des Hautes Études. 1897.

THE growth of the Alexander romance is a very curious and instructive example of the process of myth-making. It began during the lifetime of its subject. It was cultivated and disseminated by Greeks as well as Egyptians. It was easily accepted by the soldiery of the perpetually victorious army; it was probably more than half believed by the great general himself. He had not only the current beliefs of his epoch, but the superstition which has characterized many great leaders; he believed in his ancestry and his destiny. His soldiers might well accept with complete confidence a manifest deity who led them to unfailing victory, in preference to those remote dwellers in Olympus who "lay beside their nectar careless of mankind." His very tent was a sort of tabernacle, which brought security against their enemies; his body was a precious and divine relic fought over by his generals and successors, and conferring sanctity and protection on the great capital which bore his name. His miraculous presence in the Sema spread an ægis over the empire of the Ptolemies.

The Egyptians, as Dr. Budge shows, were naturally foremost in accepting his divine character, and it was in Egypt that the myth first sprang and flourished and assumed some characteristic aspects. The Pharaohs were all sons of Ra or of Ammon-Ra, either directly

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or by descent. To maintain the blood of this solar line unmixed and untainted was devised that incestuous custom of intermarriage between brother and sister which the Ptolemies adopted as a matter of state policy, if for no other reasons. The issue of such marriages inherited the clearest title to the throne, and the undisputed right to approach the temples of his divine father and be saluted by the priest as son of Ra, according to a well-known formula and ceremonial. It was in accordance with this traditional ceremony that Alexander was hailed by the priests as a son of Ammon. The occasion, as M. Maspero has lately shown with great clearness, was not exceptional and political; it was part and parcel of the institutions of the country.

The priestly logic, which had worked out with such rigor the process for securing the purity of the solar line, had already proved capable of a flexible somersault when the necessities of the national fortunes required it. If a foreign invader proved successful in imposing his yoke, then the native deities must have adopted him and ordained his good fortune. The moment that Alexander made his appearance as a victorious Pharaoh *de facto*, the divinity of his origin and his descent from Ammon became established according to priestly tradition. It made no difference that Philip was his reputed father; they asserted that in this case, as in others known to their history, Ammon had condescended to assume the form of a mortal, Philip of Macedon. The conqueror of Egypt and of the world was, after all, an incarnation of the supreme Egyptian deity.

On this priestly and official fiction, which commended itself to the pious Egyptian, and which flattered and soothed his national pride, was built the legend of Nectanebus, and of the sorceries he practised on Olympias. The nidus of the story is Alexandria rather than Egypt at large, and a breath of Euhemerism has blown over it, as Maspero says, to adapt the details to the rationalizing spirit of the Alexandrian population. Nectanebus II. was the last native king of Egypt, and sober history records that he fled into Ethiopia before the victorious Persians, about 350-340 B. C. The inventors of the legend transport Nectanebus to Macedonia; they convert him into a magician who, in the absence of Philip, deceives Olympias and becomes the father of Alexander. It is true that Alexander was born anywhere from five to fifteen years earlier than the flight of Nectanebus; but this does not embarrass the myth-makers. He is made to practise certain black arts with wax figures, which were familiar to the Egyptians as early as 4000 B. C. He beguiles Olympias in the form of a two-horned serpent, the symbol of Ammon-Ra—a form which agrees at once with the Egyptian worship of the Agathodemon Pshai, prevalent at that period, and also with the current Greek rumors which reported the familiarity of Olympias with serpents, and her devotion to bacchic orgies. The transformation is therefore made plausible to the mind of that generation, and it bears some slight relation to historic facts. It is a fair sample of the other transformations and distortions which make up the history of the Pseudo-Callisthenes. This conglomerate is in the main not a popular growth, but the work of half-learned rhetoricians unscrupulously exercising their fancy on historical themes. Hence the astounding trash put in the mouths of Demosthenes and Demades in Book II., and the perpetual flow of letters to Darius, to Aristotle, to the Amazons, which issued from the copy-books of the epistolographers. The result of this *rifacimento* reflects the real facts of Alexander's career very much as a convex mirror distorts the objects before it.

This comparison will serve in a general way, but is of course not exact. In some cases the facts are more wildly distorted, in other cases the facts do not exist, the narration is pure fiction or folk-lore. The visit of Candace, the tokens exchanged with Darius, the descent to the bottom of the sea, and the flight on eagle's wings up to heaven, evidently belong to the category of folk-tales. Dr. Budge even shows that the latter story is told of a Babylonian hero called Etanna, and is recorded in an Assyrian fragment of the royal library of Assur-bani-pal.

Such as it is, however, the popular fame of Alexander is based much rather on this curious composition than on the biographies of Arrian, of Quintus Curtius, and Plutarch. It has travelled from one end of the world to the other; it has assumed the garb and language of all nations from Malay to the British Islands, from Sweden in the north to Abyssinia in the south. It has been translated into Armenian, Pehlevi, Syriac, Hebrew, Arabic, Persian, Coptic, Turkish, and all the principal European languages. No other book except the Bible has wandered so widely or met with so universal a reception. In fact, we meet with traces of the Alexander myth in the Book of Daniel and in the Koran. No wonder, indeed, that the career of this youthful hero, which outruns the invention of romance, should have captivated the imagination of mankind the world over; his very name, which was naturalized in so many languages, became a sort of magnet that attracted to itself the floating tales of the marvellous such as we hear from Herodotus, or Lucian, or Palladius, or Marco Polo.

The divergence of these translations from their original source in the Greek varies considerably. The Armenian, which has not yet, we believe, been translated, is said to follow very closely an early and authentic text of the Greek. The Syriac, which Dr. Budge printed with a translation in 1889, exhibits some departures in detail from the Greek texts known to us, but agrees substantially with Codex A of the Bibliothèque Nationale, and can be compared in the main, chapter and verse, with the original. It contains the ludicrously puerile correspondence between Philip and the tutors about Alexander's pocket-money, which does not occur in the Greek; and also a curious letter purporting to be written by Aristotle to dissuade Alexander from founding Alexandria, on the ground that the city would be too large to be managed and supplied with provisions. The translator was undoubtedly a Christian, as he occasionally foists in quotations from Jeremiah and the Gospels.

But the Ethiopic Histories which Dr. Budge here publishes present a much wider departure from the original, and have taken on a new color from the hand of the unknown translator. Working from the Arabic, he makes Alexander a Christian King of rather Judaic type, yet a believer in the Trinity, whose conversation is bestrewn with quotations from the Scriptures, and who omits no opportunity to address pious homilies to his subjects, his army, and to Darius himself. His single lapse from ascetic virtue is caused by the bewildering charms of Candace, a countrywoman of the patriotic translator; and, in his last will and testament, he bequeaths 10,000 dinanir to the churches of Egypt! Other characters and incidents suffer a sea-change to match this pious predilection. His master Aristotle appears as a Christian philosopher, quoting the Psalms, Deuteronomy, and Samuel. The Brahmins, whose ascetic simplicity and wisdom cut so striking a figure in all the biographies of Alexander, here announce themselves as "the children of Seth, and the remnant who had not bowed the knee to Baal-Peor." Dionysus is transformed into Enoch, Bucephalus is turned into a mare to agree with Arabian notions; and, as might be expected from such a quarter, the long narrative of the Olympic contest with Nicolaus has disappeared completely. The episode made no appeal to the Oriental mind.

It is an easy step from such vagaries and digressions to the absolute waywardness of the curious Christian romance, which is largely a rhapsody on the merit of chastity, supported by a cento of Scripture texts. In this history, which was found among the mass of MSS. accumulated by King Theodore at Magdala, Alexander is pictured as a very tedious Sir Galahad, who goes forth to conquer the savage and lustful nations of Gog and Magog, and to preach to a sinful and adulterous generation. Besides other extravagant and strictly Pagan adventures, he converses with Enoch and Elijah, and is instructed by the Holy Ghost, who assures him that his father Philip will be reckoned among the martyrs. The name of Alexander is here become a mere peg, as Dr. Budge remarks, on which to hang the author's homilies. The single shred by which it adheres to the traits of the original is the reputation for continence which the conqueror of the Persians won by his treatment of the wife and daughter of Darius.

Another turn of the kaleidoscope associates Alexander with Attila and the terrors of the Huns. In the Syriac version he goes forth to meet Tubarlak, the "King of the Persians, of the house of Xerxes," who leads against him sixty-two kings and the people of Gog and Magog. He defeats these with an army of several hundred thousand men, and, to restrain their inroads, he builds enormous gates of brass and iron "in the face of the north wind." The description of these people and of their leader exactly fits the Huns and the "Scourge of God"; the account of the battle is probably a reflection of the Roman defeat of Attila on the plains of Châlons, A. D. 450-453. The fullest form of the tale is in the Canticle of Jacob of Serug, who was born about this period. His poem begins with an invocation of Christ, throned among the cherubim and seraphim, and ends with a jeremiad largely quoted from Jeremiah, predicting the woes that shall befall the earth when Gog and Magog break forth again. The Ethiopic offers variations on the same theme.

Now what are the facts about which this fantasy is composed? There stood, or stands, in the pass of Derbend along the ridges of the Caucasus, an ancient wall furnished at intervals with iron gates, called Saddi-Iskander, the rampart of Alexander. In the third book of the Greek Pseudo-Callisthenes, Alexander, writing to his mother, tells how he lately chastised a cannibal people, and, to restrain their ravages, had built gates of brass, which he called the Caspian Gates. From this, and the recent invasion of the Huns, arises the vision of Jacob of Serug, like the dream of an opium-eater. Suppose all the facts to have vanished, and that, after a lapse of a thousand years, this fantasy were to be subjected to the microscope of the scientific historian; what grain of truth could be detected as to the life and exploits of Alexander the Great?

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Dr. Budge's introduction and notes, drawn from many recondite sources, add great interest to this sumptuous work, for which the public is indebted to Lady Meux's munificence. Five hundred copies of the volume containing the notes and translations have been printed separately for the benefit of those who have no use for the Ethiopic text.

European Architecture: An Historical Study. By Russell Sturgis, A.M., Ph.D., F.A.I.A. Macmillan Co. 1896.

One notices quickly the difference between a book freely written from a mind that is full of its subject, and a composite of matter that is accumulated as it is used. The advantages which the first is apt to have in form and cohesion, as well as in freshness and animation, Mr. Sturgis's Study has over most architectural compendiums. It is not a handbook, nor even a history, but an historical essay, confined pretty closely to the main line of development in European architecture, hardly meddling with those aspects of it which are not significant of the manner of its evolution from classic through mediæval to modern. Thus, Byzantine architecture is but lightly touched, though obviously Mr. Sturgis is its admirer; Russia, Scandinavia, and other regions outside the area of main development are entirely passed by. Within its limits the book takes all the freedom of an essay, delaying here, hastening there; lingers in France and Italy, treats Germany, England, and Spain briefly. It dwells especially on the Gothic style, more lightly on the Renaissance, deals with the Romanesque a little like a step-father, and dismisses the modern styles with scant attention. The logical evolution of the subject fails after the early Rennaissance, and the book from this point inevitably lapses a little into the method of a handbook; for analysis of the later styles, especially outside of Italy, is unrewarding, its only interest being in a minuteness of study that is impracticable in a work of this compass.

Gothic building invites Mr. Sturgis most; and indeed its development is the logical thread that for a thousand years or more holds together the growth of European architecture. The backbone of his essay is the study of its structural progress from early Romanesque to the classic revival. He holds firmly by the now accepted doctrine that the essence of Gothic is in its structure, and the essence of its structure in the development of its vaulting, in the subordination of the whole construction of a building to that feature, and of its whole design to its construction. The doctrine, however, is one that may be pushed to extremes, and often has been. Gothic architecture is exceedingly logical, but it is not all logic—no great art can be. Apart from the great types of plan that were developed before its system of vaulting, and gave the spur to that, although they were modified and in some degree constrained by it, many other things are to be considered: the upward aspiration, the preference for lines over surfaces and for horizontal lines over vertical, for polygonal forms over round, the actual fervor for the pointed arch that grew up (which is apt to be belittled in modern analysis), and the whole array of decorative features and sculpture of animal and vegetable forms, which might have been very different without interfering with the vaulting system. The untaught reader would be better off for some allusion to these things.

There are other omissions that we should not have looked for: in the discussion of Greek architecture, for example, buildings other than temples and theatres are hardly mentioned, and we miss an adequate account of the temple form itself, or of what constitutes an order, either Greek or Roman. The types of building in all styles get scant attention, including even the great types of mediæval churches, nor do we find any account of the influence of the monastic orders on architecture, or of the transition to Gothic forms at the end of the twelfth century. One wonders why we see St. Paul's Church in London carefully analyzed, and St. Peter's at Rome slighted, or why Raphael is made prominent as an architect, and Bramante's work in Rome, even on St. Peter's, overlooked.

But only a small part of so large a subject can be discussed in five hundred pages with freedom enough to give it interest, and one man's selection is not another's. Mr. Sturgis has his own convictions and an educated critical faculty. A large store of information and much animation of mind give freshness and interest to his writing, and will furnish the reader with more to think about than he will find in many books of twice the size of this. Among all its class, at least in English, this one, we think, is the most likely to be profitable and attractive to readers to whom the subject is unfamiliar.

A History of Elementary Mathematics. With Hints on Methods of Teaching. By Florian Cajori, Ph.D., Professor of Physics in Colorado College. Macmillan. 1896. 8vo, pp. 289.

The author, in his preface, admits having freely used the works of Cantor, Hankel, Unger, etc., some of them quite recent, on the history of mathematics. He seems to have followed his German authorities so slavishly that he spells Arabic words and names in the awkward German manner, with *dsch* where a simple *j* renders the sound much better, as in the title of Alkhwarizmi's work 'Aldschebr [aljebr] walmukabâla' (Restoration and Opposition), from which the very word "algebra" is taken; or *dschiba* (*jiba*) as the Arabic for our sine; it is in fact *jaib*. There are also annoying mistakes in mathematical notation, which we hope are slips of the pen or misprints. For instance, we find that in Briggs's tables, upon Napier's suggestion, 10^7 was made the logarithm of the whole sine, while Briggs had proposed 10^7 as the logarithm of 1-10. For 10^7 there should be 10 in one place and 1 in the other.

The introduction gives the number-systems of antiquity, based on the powers of ten, of twelve, of twenty, and at Babylon, in part, of sixty. The history proper begins with the Ahmes papyrus, written between 1700 and 2000 B. C., which shows that great progress had even then been made on the banks of the Nile in arithmetic, especially in fractions; but Egypt seems not to have gone much further. We are then introduced to the numerical notations of Babylon, Phœnicia, Greece, and Rome, and lastly to that of the Hindus, perfected about 500 A. D., borrowed from them by the Arabs, and by Europe from these. The use of the Roman abacus for adding numbers and certain fractions by balls on strings is well explained. This instrument became needless when Arabic figures were written in position, giving value to each, like the strings of the abacus; and the author shows clearly how greatly the art of calculation was aided by this mode of numeration, yet how slowly and painfully middle-age Europe groped about before division, especially before long division, took its present form. The Greeks, though backward in arithmetic, struck out boldly in geometry, which they kept wholly separate from it, and which in the hands of Euclid (to whom, of course, the largest space is given) belied its name (earth-measuring), as mensuration seems to have been beneath his notice. Thales, Pythagoras, and Plato before him, Archimedes, Eratosthenes, Claudius Ptolemæus, Theron and Hypatia after Euclid, are shortly referred to as geometers, and last, among the Greeks, their only algebraist, Diophantus. Very little is said or could be said about the Romans, who did nothing in mathematical research, and did not even appropriate the discoveries of Greece in this field. The author then turns to the Hindus and Arabs. Both, he thinks, learned much from Greece; both of them carried the science further. Trigonometry, plane and spherical, seems to have come from India to the Arabs; and, among the latter, Al Battânî is said to have found the fundamental equation for the oblique spherical triangle.

Christian Europe did little or nothing for mathematics till the time of the Renaissance in Italy. We find, starting with this period, the names of all the great masters in Italy, France, England, Scotland, and Germany; and besides them those of such arithmetic writers as Cocker in England and Adam Riese in Germany, together with their imitators in the American colonies. On coming to Napier and his logarithms, the author points out that these were not exactly "natural," that they run in the opposite direction from the *sinus totus* down, and belong to sines, not to current numbers; that Napier got at the idea of this function in a roundabout way, from the proposition which we write: $d \log x = \frac{dx}{x}$. But he fails to tell us how Napier worked out his table; which we supply. Napier felt somehow, that for an ω so small as to be written by 16 decimals of which the first 8 are zeros, he might consider $\log (1+\omega)=\omega$. He got his $1+\omega$ by drawing thirty times (or oftener) the square root of a given N, reaching thus the 1,073,741,824th root of N, and then $\log N=1{,}073{,}741{,}824 \times \omega$. Whoever wishes to test the Scotchman's patience should try to find one logarithm by that road.

On page 265 we read of Gauss, when still a boy at the University, inscribing a polygon of 17 sides in the circle, and his discovery is referred to on page 74 as applicable to all polygons with $2^{2^n}+1$ sides, when that number is prime. But as the author tells us not a word about De Moivre's great theorem for expressing the sine and cosine by imaginary exponentials, and of the resulting mode of dividing the periphery into $2m+1$ parts by the equation $x^{2m}+x^{2m-1}+\ldots x+1=0$, he does not in anywise indicate that Gauss found real roots, without passing through the imaginary symbol, when $2m=2^{2^n}$. If De Moivre's theorem is not elementary enough for the scope of the work, neither is its application by Gauss.

In speaking of $\sqrt{-1}$, the author rebukes those text writers who still deny its reality, as holding an obsolete view, and he refers to scholars from H. Kühn in 1750 down to Hamilton and the elder Peirce, who gave to $\sqrt{-1}$ its geometric meaning. This meaning is simple enough: when (-1) represents the half-rotation, or direction turned back, $\sqrt{-1}$ is the quarter rotation or perpendicular; but Prof. Cajori does not tell us this, though it is one of the most momentous steps in the progress of mathematics. Towards the end of the volume Lobatchevsky, Bolyai, father and son, and

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Riemann are named as creators of a non-Euclidean, or even an anti-Euclidean, geometry; but while there are short notices on the lives of the Russian and of the two Magyars, there is not one word to denote the standpoint of any one of them; and of Riemann we are told only in a foot-note that he deems all our notions of space to be derived from sensation and experience.

Our author gives a great deal of space to the attempts of modern writers to prove the unsatisfactory axiom of Euclid on which he bases all his theorems about parallel lines; and, after displaying the weakness of some of these attempts, comes to the conclusion that parallels cannot be truly defined, and that the equality of the angles upon them cannot be proved. He does not name Prof. J. J. Littrow of Vienna, whose demonstration is yet worth notice. Littrow proves first that the three angles of a triangle are = 2 R. Thus: When a side a and angles B C are given, angle A is determined; it is = F (a B C); and as an angle may be viewed as an abstract number, it has no relation to one measure in space: angle A = F (A B) *simply*. Now divide a right-angled triangle by a perpendicular; the new angles are each in a new triangle which has two of the old angles, and must therefore be equal to them; hence in a right-angled triangle the sum of angles is =2 R, and by putting two of these figures together so as to run two right angles into one line, any triangle can be formed with its three angles =2 R. Now cross one line by two others, meeting on one side, at any distance at A; then the two other angles sum up 2 R—A, or are less than 2 R, which is Euclid's axiom, and parallels appear as lines drawn in the same plane which never meet. The difficulty remains how to teach the meaning of the words "in one plane" without going into solid geometry; but this pervades the whole of Euclidean, and perhaps of all other, plane geometry.

The promised "Hints as to Methods of Teaching" are hints only. A systematic work on the best mode of teaching mathematics, somewhat like Parker's method of teaching geography in the Educational Series, taking a broad independent stand, and cutting loose from Euclid and from all old prejudices, as to the order and selection of the material, would do a great deal towards diffusing a taste for and the knowledge of the purest of disciplines known to mankind.

Guide to the Study of American History. By Edward Channing, Ph.D., and Albert Bushnell Hart, Ph.D., Assistant Professors of History in Harvard University. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1896.

If Jared Sparks could cast an eye over his progeny in the fields of American history and biography, he would behold them numerous as the sands of the sea. They have toiled hard and have much to show for their toil. They have planted a forest which abounds in well-grown elms and maples, but which is encumbered in spots with a dense jungle of underbrush. One must attempt to cut a section through this maze before he can understand either its extent or its intricacy. Even if he boasts some knowledge of woodcraft, he will welcome the assistance of a local guide. The authors of the present volume are professional pathfinders of skill and endurance. Not content with blazing a trail, they haussmannize the wilderness, that their students may sip coffee on an ample boulevard.

Thirteen years' experience in teaching history at Harvard forms the basis of this "guide." It is familiarly known that the lectures of Prof. Channing deal with the colonial period, those of Prof. Hart with the history of the United States. By combining forces they cover the whole ground, and get the benefit of mutual advice and suggestion. Their plan of bringing out a joint bibliography was an excellent one, and it has been successfully put through. The production of work like Mr. Mason's study of the Veto Power and of Miss Follett's study of the Speaker has already shown that American history is soundly taught at Harvard. This impression will be confirmed by the diligence and learning now disclosed.

There is a vast difference between "a mine of learning" and "a dungeon of learning." The lucidity implied by the former phrase shows itself here in many practical hints, and in the arrangement of a large and intricate body of literature. The contents are classed under three parts, each with its series of clearly defined sections. Part i. deals with methods and materials; part ii. with topics and references *in colonial history; and part iii. with* topics and references in United States history. The sections are numbered consecutively and run up to 214, where the book closes with the abolition of slavery. A more logical division might perhaps have been effected by making two parts only, and putting what now constitutes parts ii. and iii. under part ii. as A and B. Parts ii. and iii. are really the same thing. The treatment of subjects is identical throughout both, and they are merely divided by the transformation of the colonies into the Union. At the same time part i. has a character of its own and occupies more space than the other two parts. A neater tabulation, then, would be: Part i., methods and materials; Part ii., topics and references—A, Colonial, B, United States.

But this may very well be called a matter of taste. The book deserves unqualified praise for its clearness and precision. Designed for the aid of teachers, students, and librarians, it makes useful suggestions to them all. The treatment is rigidly categorical, and every word has been weighed. We have seldom seen such careful compression, such painstaking elimination of what is ornamental and unnecessary. In this respect the guide is not second to Stubbs's 'Select Charters.' Part i., which consists largely of disquisition, contains the highest quality of work, although parts ii. and iii., with their concise bibliographies, will probably be most used by the student-with-a-purpose. The tone of part i. is didactic, but not dogmatic, and under its seventy-six sections almost every matter connected with the private reading or the class study of American history is discussed. The standing and extent of American history, general methods, special bibliographies, working libraries, class exercises, reading, written work, and tests are its main divisions. Each division has its own sub-sections, ranging in number from three to twenty-one. The book is so concentrated that analysis of its main points would involve almost exact reproduction. Hence we are driven to describe its contents by the use of statistical formulas.

The authors safeguard themselves against a charge which might be brought against many professors of American history, namely, that of encouraging students to undertake special research before they are properly equipped for it. Just as Sir Henry Maine insists that democracy is a form of government, Prof. Channing and Prof. Hart insist that American history is a part of history. "Every student, teacher, and writer of American history must from the beginning keep in mind the fact that the development of this country is only a part of a general movement, and that in the relations of foreign Powers with the nations of the New World is often to be found the key to the actual direction of American history." And again, in another connection: "No one can be fitted to be a specialist in American history who has not also a good, all-round training in the general subject, and thus is able to compare intelligently the history of other countries with that of his own." We doubt, however, whether a large proportion of the students who hand in the "special reports" described under section 70 are best served by that ingenious system. A scrutiny of the life of Robert C. Grier is all very well in its place, and so is an investigation of the receipts derived by the United States from the tariff on quinine; but we say about them what Horace says about misplaced purple patches, "*Sed nunc non erat his locus.*" We assume that the undergraduates engaged in drawing up these reports are not on terms of close intimacy with Thucydides, Tacitus, and Gibbon. Until they have learned from the masters what historical writing really is, they had best leave the "intensive" study of American history alone. The time allotted to history by the ordinary curriculum will barely suffice for the laying of a broad foundation. Of course one expects thoroughness everywhere, but the methods of historical specialization, in so far as they tend to be professional, should be relegated to the graduate school. We applaud the zeal which Prof. Channing and Prof. Hart have shown in emphasizing the necessity of thoroughness, observation, and reflection. Their manual proves that the authors themselves are the happy possessors of these three high qualities. And so, if we criticise the special-report system, it is only because we think that it may conflict with the attainment of that firm grasp of general history which, in common with them, we hold to be indispensable.

We regret that we are unable to devote any space to the purely bibliographical aspects of the book. We should attempt such an examination if it could be kept within reasonable limits. As it is, we recommend every lover of the national history to buy this guide and to keep it at his elbow. The literary style of part i. is on the whole good, though at times it is not immaculate. Parts ii. and iii. make no literary pretensions. The main considerations suggested by each topic which they embrace are grouped under a summary. The summary is followed by an analysis of the material under the heads general, special, sources, and bibliography. The authors do not pretend that the bibliography of any given topic has been exhausted. Leaving the antiquarian and the genealogist out of account, they have sought to bring together what is "likely to be most immediately useful to the searcher into political, social, constitutional, and economic history." Within the limits thus defined they have succeeded admirably.

My Long Life: An Autobiographical Sketch. By Mary Cowden-Clarke, Author of the 'Concordance of Shakspeare,' etc., etc. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1896.

For so long a life as Mrs. Cowden-Clarke has very literally enjoyed, her story of it is extremely short, and the 270 openly printed pages are as cheerful to the eye as is her brief

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recital to the mind. That she is a gleaner after her own reaping in her 'Recollections of Literary People' is probably the reason why she dwells so little on even the more distinguished figures on her crowded stage, and makes her narrative but little more than a journal of meetings and partings, the seeing of famous actors and the hearing of famous singers and other musical performers. For those who are much interested in the history of music and the drama, her book will have a special interest. But it does not make its principal appeal to any favored class. It is delightful because of its infectious cheerfulness. In front of her Italian house there is a sun-dial with the familiar motto, "I mark only the sunny hours," and her sister tells her that this might well have been the motto of her book. It was the motto of her life. Particularly beautiful was her married happiness with Charles Cowden Clarke, who was nearly twenty years her senior, but who was always young of heart. He died in 1877, "the spring sun shining on his bed," and left behind him a memory as cheerful as his living presence. Together they made full proof of Theodore Parker's saying, "A happy marriage is a long falling in love."

Born in 1809, Mrs. Cowden Clarke enjoyed a glimpse of Shelley and had a golden vision of John Keats listening to her father's music. In her husband's memory he lived a second life as vivid as became the author of an Epistle to Charles Cowden Clarke. Leigh Hunt she knew long and intimately and Charles Lamb very well. It was no ordinary honeymoon that had for its consummation a week with Lamb at Enfield, which was enlivened by some of his most humorous escapades. It was on a little visit celebrating her first wedding anniversary that she resolved to undertake the Shakspere Concordance, some one at table having regretted that there was none. Sallying out after breakfast, she took a volume of Shakspere, with pencil and paper, jotted down her plan, and wrote the first line of her intended book, which, although diligently followed up, was sixteen years in the making. Coleridge she saw but once, when, incited by her father's musical reputation, he plunged into an eloquent exposition "of an idea he had that the creation of the universe must have been accompanied by a grand prevailing harmony of spheral music"—probably an unconscious reminiscence, after his manner, of the singing of the morning stars. She would have us know that her literary tasks did not prevent her skill in cookery and needle-work. At one time she made all the clothes she wore, as well as her husband's dress waistcoats, one of which, "embroidered on black satin with a wreath of ivy-leaves and berries in their natural colors," must have been a spectacle for men and angels.

Mrs. Cowden Clarke has been a diligent traveller and visitor, and has seen much of interesting people, and few indeed are the contemporary celebrities that do not at least flit across her page. The music of the future pleases her equally with the music of the past. All is grist that comes to the mill of her enthusiastic disposition, or rather she is instinctively selective of the good and fair. All coarseness she has repelled, and she quotes with heartiest approval words of Sir John Lubbock, which may be commended to the editors of the *Daily Muckrake* as deserving their deliberate attention: "The soul is dyed by its thoughts; we cannot keep our minds pure if we allow them to be sullied by detailed accounts of crime and sin."

An Illustrated Flora of the Northern United States, Canada and the British Possessions, from Newfoundland to the Parallel of the Southern Boundary of Virginia, and from the Atlantic Ocean westward to the 102d meridian. By N. L. Britton, Ph.D., Emeritus Professor of Botany in Columbia University, and Director-in-Chief of the New York Botanical Garden, and Hon. Addison Brown, President of the Torrey Botanical Club. In three volumes. Vol. I. Ophioglossaceæ to Aizoaceæ, Ferns to Carpetweed. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

THAT there is a real demand for an illustrated account of the plants of our country is apparent from the eagerness with which every honest attempt in this direction has been received. One need go no farther than to note the welcome which has been accorded to the two charming handbooks by Mr. Schuyler Mathews. These two works, although very limited in their range, have been recognized as important aids to the understanding of our native plants. The time, therefore, seems ripe for the production of an exhaustive illustrated flora of the most easily accessible parts of our continent.

In the work before us we have a partial realization of this plan. As far as the present volume enables us to judge, we have here a treatise which will exert a wide influence in inducing large numbers of persons to make botany within these limits a pleasant recreative study, and which will, at the same time, afford to those who are fond of systematic botany a convenient work of reference. As we shall see later, the authors have followed a hint from German systematists, and have reversed the sequence of orders. May we not be permitted likewise to reverse the ordinary sequence in criticism, and mention first what seem to us to be serious defects in the treatise, and then proceed to the more agreeable task of speaking of the many excellences? These defects appear to us to be chiefly three.

First, the *differentiæ*, or the characters by which genera are separated from contiguous genera, and species from allied species, are not always sharply put. Of course we recognize the fact that in some instances these lines are very obscure, and contrasted characters are not readily found, but such as do exist should be brought into prominence. An ingenious typographical device which is the common property of all sciences of the classificatory type, namely, the use of italics to denote the more important differential characters, so that the eye of the reader is aided considerably in his search, is here unfortunately wanting. The fact that such a difference of type is employed in another work covering much the same range could not have influenced the authors of this, but we regret that the good judgment which moved them to choose such admirable type for the body of the treatise did not lead them to go still farther and make it much more helpful.

Secondly, while expressing admiration for the prodigal use throughout of figures in outline, we must qualify our expression by calling attention to the unequal quality of the drawing, considered from a botanical point of view. A large proportion of the drawings are excellent in all respects; others will hardly prove of any assistance to the student. In some notable instances the artists have with true feeling caught the essential and differential features, and have given these with skill. What is needed in a botanical drawing may be illustrated by what everybody knows about caricature. A skilful draughtsman can catch from the human face a few lines which will bear a trifling exaggeration, and these lines become ever after associated with the face in question. Even such slight emphasis or exaggeration gives to some drawings of plants a character which aids very greatly in their employment in identification. Those who are familiar with the occasional look of despair which comes over the face of a botanist who, in Europe, tries for the first time to discriminate between polymorphous species by the help of some of the popular illustrated floras, will share our apprehension that a similar look of disappointment will be observable when some of the more sketchy figures in this work are employed.

Third, the nomenclature. This embodies an application of the rules against which a good many conservative botanists have been compelled to protest, in the hope that by and by there might be a general consensus looking towards reform in the matter. Now, however, we have Pandora's box wide open and the cover gone. The most grotesque even of Rafinesque's names are here, and now can never be recalled. It is not unlikely that in the not very distant future these same generic names will be a source of deep mortification to those who have dragged them from merited obscurity. Those who had hoped that better counsels might prevail must wait a little longer for order to come out of the chaos of names. Our readers remember how deeply many botanists regretted that the sumptuous work, 'The Silva of North America,' was handicapped by its nomenclature; to the confusion ushered in by this innovation is now added a new element in the present treatise. We trust that the more conservative botanists will not entirely give up the old idea that possibly hope may be lingering around Pandora's box, but it seems rather a discouraging way of getting at it to have to meet so many unnecessary troubles first.

Now, having said our say, but we trust with no spirit of petulance tinging our expression of regret, we proceed to the enumeration of some of the many merits of this work. In the first place, it wisely adopts the plan of arrangement by which one goes from the simpler to the more complex forms of vegetation. Such a course takes its way from the ferns to the gymnosperms, which were formerly sandwiched between two great groups, instead of standing as an interesting link between the so-called flowerless and the flowering plants. From the gymnosperms we pass in succession to the monocotyledons, and finally to the dicotyledons, the volume coming to a close with certain allies of our common four-o'clock. This adoption of the Engler, or, as it is generally known, the Eichler method we regard as a substantial step in advance.

Secondly, the artificial keys are excellent throughout. All of them appear, so far as our examination has gone, to be carefully prepared. They are characterized by much of the same quality which rendered the keys in Wood's Botany popular, and will serve a good purpose through not being deterrent to the beginner.

Thirdly, the appearance of the whole work is extremely attractive, and every feature of its mechanical execution will bear strict scrutiny as regards both workmanship and sound taste. The authors are to be heartily congratulated on their genuine success in securing earnest coöperation from all their coadjutors, and thus making a worthy contribution to the advancement of interest in our native flora. No matter how many changes may be sug-

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gested in the range of plants here described, no matter how great the temporary confusion resulting from a transitory change of names, the fact remains that in this treatise we have an admirable addition to the working appliances of all lovers of North American plants.

Hand-book of Courses Open to Women in British, Continental, and Canadian Universities. Compiled for the Graduate Club of Bryn Mawr College by Isabel Maddison; assisted by Helen W. Thomas and Emma S. Wines. Macmillan Co. 1896.

IT seems quite unlikely that the course of woman's education ever will run smooth; and those who have experienced the restrictions under which women study abroad will understand that a hand-book of courses open to women in foreign universities is useful rather than agreeable reading. The volume entitled 'Graduate Courses,' published at first by Harvard University and later by the Federation of Graduate Clubs, was compiled to meet needs arising from the rapid increase of graduate work in American universities and colleges. The present work, published under the auspices of the Bryn Mawr Graduate Club, implies by its title that it is the woman's side of the subject that has been mainly considered. But, since *Minerva*, the "Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt," the German *locus classicus* on the subject, cannot be supposed to have a wide circulation in America or England, it is probable that the mass of information about the lecturers and regulations in foreign universities here presented, in English, for the first time, will be useful to men as well as women students—and it is interesting even to the general reader.

Those who measure a nation's refinement by the position of its women may be reminded that the universities of France, Italy, and Spain lay no restrictions on women—in the two latter countries no distinction has ever been drawn—whereas England and Germany give grudgingly what little they give, their motto being "no rights and few privileges," and Russia is uncompromisingly intolerant. Norway, the Netherlands, Denmark, and Belgium are liberal in their attitude; Austria is a shade more conservative than Germany. In cases where the editors have been unable to obtain information, the silence of the authorities does not augur friendliness.

In Great Britain we find Scotland boldly offering to women equal chances with men, whereas in Ireland, whose national characteristics are not usually supposed to include timidity, Trinity College, Dublin, has just entered on the first year of a cautious policy whereby women, separately trained, may take the examinations for the senior freshmen's certificate. This is to be regarded as an experiment, and the privilege holds good only until 1898. After giving such a sign of life, the venerable foundation of Trinity College may reasonably demand these three years in which to take breath. At this rate, no doubt, women will ultimately be admitted to the Dublin degree; but, to paraphrase Mrs. Garth, they are not asking for degrees "ultimately"—they are asking for them now.

At Oxford, women are excluded from the Medical School only—we forbear to point the moral for Johns Hopkins—and the names of the Medical Faculty are accordingly omitted (p. 93); since they are given for Cambridge (p. 79), the implication is that women may pass through the medical courses there, though, as is well known, Cambridge does not, as yet, grant the actual degree to women; it would be well, however, to state more precisely on p. 78 what privileges Cambridge gives to women medical students.

The Collège de France has admitted women since the sixteenth century. We note (p. 26) that attention is drawn to "the advantages of less crowded classes and more individual attention from the professors offered by the faculties of the provinces compared with those of Paris"; it seems improbable that students who set out to hear the classical lectures of Martha, or Boissier, or Croiset, or Poincaré in mathematics at the Sorbonne, would regard individual attention in the provinces as an equivalent. In fact, if that were indispensable, it could be had in Paris itself at the École Nationale des Chartes, where there are eight lecturers teaching eight subjects to twenty students. A concession to masculine interests is made on p. 32, where particulars are given of the École Libre des Sciences Politiques, "for the training of diplomatists, consuls, and ambassadors." On p. 28 we are informed that "students from American universities going to study in France are allowed a reduction of thirty per cent. on the rates of the steamers of the Compagnie Générale Transatlantique." We take this opportunity of warning intending passengers to follow literally the instructions to apply for this reduction to M. Paul Melon at the Sorbonne; the New York office of the line denies all knowledge of such an arrangement, and one member at any rate of the American committee, having himself received no information on the subject, is unable to impart any.

We would say, in conclusion, that the Handbook is admirably got up, and is open to criticism only on minor points. On p. 86, left column, for Sellars read Sellers; p. 79, right column, Sir G. M. Humphry's name is misspelt Humphrey; p. 78, right column, is the typographical error "Head, lam" for Headlam.

Parakites: A Treatise on the Making and Flying of Tailless Kites for Scientific Purposes and for Recreation. By Gilbert Totten Woglom. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

THIS treatise is exceedingly uneven in quality. In parts it merits high praise; but its defects and its apparent lack of frankness regarding the work of other experimenters afford ground for censure. The essential features of the Woglom parakite (more than a kite) seem to be precisely the same as those of the Malay kite which Mr. Eddy has been flying and describing for four or five years. It is true that Mr. Woglom's Libby is a "dream in pale blue China silk," and that the Bride is "a spruce creation robed in virgin-white silk conventionally cut and plaited," and that Mr. Eddy has not aspired higher than cambric or silesia; but whether spruce, or bamboo, or silk, cotton, or paper, the parakite is the Malay kite, and nothing else, in form, figure, and proportions. In the scientific journals Mr. Eddy has frequently given directions for constructing the kites he was using, and in a number of places he has told how he came to evolve this particular form, so that the appearance of the very same tailless kite as the idea of Mr. Woglom, with his name tacked to it, is, to say the least, surprising. Mr. Woglom ought to have explained this. Further, the omission of any word in the book about Mr. Eddy or his work (unless, indeed, the sneer at the aerial photography of others is a mention of Mr. Eddy) is significant, as is also the utter neglect to speak of Blue Hill Observatory, where so much work has been done in a scientific way, and mostly with kites of the Eddy pattern. Scientific men who have kept the run of reliable publications have come to know Mr. Eddy as the man through whose apparatus, energy, and example kite-flying has become the important adjunct to investigation that it is, and thus far in no one of these publications has his right to this reputation been even questioned. Mr. Woglom made a mistake in ignoring these facts which everybody conversant with kites is informed about, for no one can be permitted to appropriate that which belongs to another without some kind of justification.

His book, however, as a guide to the construction of tailless kites, is admirable. The author is a man of ingenuity and has mechanical instincts. He adopts proper ways of constructing things and shows how to do them well. He has ability to follow up certain lines of investigation, and has done this with care and precision. He has developed the minutiæ of kite-building in a remarkable way; he has studied with care the possible materials, and has noted the problems which occur during flight. All this he explains in language so clear that, with his book in hand, any one could make a tailless kite, and with a little experience could make it fly. Thus far the book is a model. But when Mr. Woglom tries to write a chapter about meteorology he fails. He seems to have acquired some of the elementary principles of the science, but in developing them he plainly gets beyond his depth—so much so that even the professional meteorologist finds himself puzzled to know what it is all about. The mathematics, too, are a little queer. One cannot say that they are wrong, but Mr. Woglom assumes that the reader has a knowledge of sines, secants, and logarithms, and then tries to simplify the elementary formulas for the solution of the right-angled triangle. The method of triangulation he advises for getting the heights of kites is not to be recommended. It requires an assistant who must place himself vertically under the kite and determine the exact spot by sighting up a plumbline, and then must measure the exact distance back to the flyer. Of course in a city, or in a country that is not perfectly level, these measurements are out of the question. If, however, this is the way in which Mr. Woglom has determined the flight of his kites, it perhaps explains his evident exaggeration in estimating the heights from which those pictures were taken with his camera which appear as illustrations in his book.

The volume is well illustrated, but one who desires to look up some particular item in the text will usually find it more easily by turning the pages than by consulting the index.

Myths and Legends of Our Own Land. By Charles M. Skinner. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1896.

A SCIENTIFIC treatment of American myths and legends would divide them into two great classes: the myths and folk-lore of the aborigines and those of the white colonists and their descendants. These latter again subdivide into variations on old themes common to all Europe (such as headless horsemen, buried treasure, and the like) and those which seem to have sprung up indigenously on American soil. Besides these there are numerous floating stories which are not properly folk-lore, but inventions of ingenious story-tellers of the literary class, such as William

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Austin's 'Peter Rugg.' If there is a dangerous reef, somebody is sure to fit it with a pathetic shipwreck; if there is a precipice or cataract, we are certain to have the fugitive lovers who leap or are drifted over it. Of the ætiological myth, or story made up to account for the facts, we have here a good example in the rather grim tradition of "The Deformed of Zoar." If there ever were such strangely malformed people, it is clear that the story of the peddler's mutilation and murder has been made up to account for their occurrence.

It has not, however, been Mr. Skinner's purpose to undertake any scientific treatment or classification of American traditions, but simply to make a collection of those that are current, and to tell them as concisely as possible. He groups them geographically: legends of the Hudson and the Dutch colonists; those of the New England States, those of the South, of the Central States and Great Lakes, of the Rocky Range, and of the Pacific Slope. And he certainly has made a remarkable collection of nearly three hundred myths, traditions, and curious stories, out of which novelists, poets, and dramatists might draw excellent material. His treatment is perhaps a little jejune; but if he had not told his stories very briefly, he could not have condensed so much into these small volumes. The book is handsomely printed and tastefully illustrated from photographs.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. A Golden Autumn. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
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Allen, Grant. The Desire of the Eyes. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Amicis, Edmondo de. Constantinople. 2 vols. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co. $3.
Anderson, Mrs. Finley. A Woman with a Record. G. W. Dillingham Co.
A Record of the Buddhist Religion as Practised in India and the Malay Archipelago (671-695). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Armstrong, Walter. The Art of Velazquez. [Portfolio Monographs.] Macmillan.
Aubrey, W. H. S. Rise and Growth of the English Nation. 3 vols. Appletons. $4 50.
Balzac, H. de. Juana. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Barnes, James. Midshipman Farragut. Appletons. $1.
Barnes, James. Naval Actions of the War of 1812. Harpers. $4.50.
Beal, Mrs. Mary B. The Boys of Clovernook. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Beal, Prof. W. J. Grasses of North America. Vol. II. Henry Holt & Co. $5.
Beard, D. C. The American Boy's Book of Sport, Scribners. $2.50.
Beck, Friedrich. Dante's Vita Nuova. Kritischer Text. München: Piloty & Loehle.
Behrends, A. J. F. The World for Christ. New York: Eaton & Mains. 90c.
Biddle, A. J. D. The Froggy Fairy Book. Philadelphia: Drexel-Biddle & Bradley Publishing Co.
Biedermann, Prof. W. Electro-Physiology. Macmillan. $5.50.
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Bill Nye's History of England. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
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Report of the First International Coöperative Congress. London: P. S. King & Son.
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